

The Role and Potential of Marketing Communications in the Turkish Domestic  
Tourism Market

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## **Abstract:**

This is a qualitative study of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market: a sector still in its “infancy” in comparison with many other countries, but with substantial growth potential. The rationale for the research lies in its contribution to knowledge and understanding from an academic perspective and its applied relevance to marketing communications initiatives in the world of practical management.

An extensive international literature review in the areas of tourism management, marketing communications and consumer buying behaviour was undertaken and its relevance and transferability to Turkey examined critically in the light of the primary research findings. This secondary research was supplemented by a comprehensive primary data collection process, during which the data collection methods were triangulated. The field research comprised initial exploratory interviews with tourists, key informant interviews, observations at travel agencies, focus group studies and final interviews. This data illustrated how consumers collect and process information, when making holiday decisions and evaluated the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

Based on the ownership structure of travel agencies, and the stage of development of the sector, the thesis establishes the lack of a marketing orientation amongst travel agencies, and the effect this has on the way that these businesses carry out their marketing communications activities. Although the role and potential of sales staff, brochures and the Internet is examined, the main focus is on the role of holiday newspaper advertisements in the consumer decision making process. The thesis establishes that gender has a significant influence on the reasoning process determining holiday choices. The research examines the implications of this, and suggests that marketing communications stimuli should take these influences into account. A set of guidelines and recommendations are offered to improve the effectiveness of the marketing communications activities of travel agencies.



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# **Chapter 1: Introduction**

## **1.0.0 Research Title**

### **1.1.0 Rationale Underpinning the Research**

#### **1.1.1 Academic Interest**

#### **1.1.2 Practical Management Rationale**

#### **1.1.3 Personal Interest**

### **1.2.0 Research problem**

### **1.3.0.Overview**

## **1.0.0 Research Title**

This research investigates ‘the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market’ with specific reference to the holiday decision-making process and how marketing communications can influence the process.

### **1.1.0 Rationale Underpinning the Research**

The rationale for undertaking this research has been driven mainly by the researcher’s academic and personal interest together with a desire to make a valuable and original contribution to the management of those business firms operating in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

#### **1.1.1 Academic Interest**

The touchpaper that fuelled the initial *academic* interest in marketing communications was Hirschman and Holbrook’s (1982) research article which questioned the validity of cognitive elements of marketing communications for products or services designed to fulfil emotional and hedonic needs. Hirschman and Holbrook’s (1982) research emphasised the role of *fun* and *playful* activities in consumption and information processing and stressed the fact that there may be differences in the information processing of individuals, arising from the individualistic nature of consumers and the characteristics of specific products or services. The outcome of this research, in terms of marketing communications, was to draw attention away from the linear and cognitive information processing models (Strong, 1925; Lavidge and Steiner, 1961;



Colley, 1961; Rogers, 1962; Sandage and Fryburger, 1963; Howard and Sheth, 1969; and McGuire, 1978), which treated people as passive information processors, towards the specific characteristics of the individuals and how the content of marketing communications messages should relate to them.

Additionally, research carried out by Bakan (1966), Rosenthal and DePaulo (1979), Holbrook (1986), Deaux and Kite (1987), Meyers-Levy (1989), Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991), Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran (1991), Darley *et al.* (1995), Burstein *et al.* (1980) and Statt (1997) pointed out the differences in information processing between males and females. This caused the researcher to consider and evaluate the family holiday decision making process. In so doing, the scope of the research began to enlarge. In order to satisfactorily investigate the family holiday decision making process, it became necessary to examine the motivations of tourists, and the methods for classifying different types of tourists.

Marketing research into families with children revealed that they represent as much as 76 % (Capital, 1999) of the whole domestic tourism market in Turkey in 1998. This segment is therefore very significant in terms of the overall market. As the researcher began to read more widely about the family, and how family dynamics affect the decision making process, it became clear that gender issues needed to be explored. This was felt to have particular academic importance for Turkey, where the researcher felt that unquestioned assumptions about the limited role of women in family decision making might be masking a different reality.

In the area of family decision making, Fodness' (1992) paper was significant in that it identified the changes in the family decision making process over the family life cycle. Other important papers of researchers such as Consenza and Davis (1981); Nichols and Snepenger (1988); Fodness (1992); Harrison (1992) and Zalatan (1998) pointed out that wives were more likely than husbands to conduct the pre-vacation information search in family holidays and suggested that marketing communications messages aimed at families should take into account the role of women in family holiday decision-making. The researcher therefore became interested in determining the extent to which such research would be transferable to the Turkish context.

It should be borne in mind that underpinning the entire rationale for the researcher's academic interest was a desire to generate some initial doctoral level research within, and relevant to, Turkey. Research into tourism, consumer behaviour and marketing communications has received considerable attention in a number of different countries, but has largely been neglected in Turkey. One of the main aims and interest of the researcher has been to redress this imbalance.

### **1.1.2 Practical Management Rationale**

From a practical perspective, two main factors stimulated the researcher's interest in tourism:

- the phenomenal growth of the tourism industry in Turkey, between 1980 and 1997, heightened the interest of the researcher in this industry. Within this period, the number of tourists visiting the country increased ten fold, and tourism revenues grew more than twenty-five fold (Economist, 1998). In 1997, Turkey earned \$ 8.1 billion from 9.7 million international tourists visiting the country, which made Turkey the 18<sup>th</sup> largest tourism revenue earning country in the world (TURSAB, 1999).
- the significance of the multiplier effect of tourism in Turkey was found to be one of the highest in the world (Fletcher, 1995). However, realising the benefits of a high multiplier value is dependent on the effectiveness and contribution of individual business firms operating in the sector. Thus, it was felt that this research could help to improve the marketing communications activities of the individual firms and thereby maximise the benefits of the high multiplier effect. Therefore, this research will not only benefit the individual firms in the sector but through the multiplier effect will also contribute to the economy as a whole.

Initial exploratory interviews with a number of key practitioners in the sector revealed a variety of issues that justified further research.

In reaching the decision to examine the domestic tourism market, as opposed to the inbound market, the researcher used the astonishing growth of the infant domestic tourism market whose turnover was \$ 5 billion in 1997 (TURSAB, 1999) as justification. Furthermore, domestic tourism has shown itself to be much more resilient than inbound tourism, and has not experienced the alarming fluctuations that inbound tourism has suffered as a result of the changes taking place in the external environment. Thus, the size and relative stability of the market prompted the researcher to embark on systematic research with the aim of generating specific findings that would add value to the marketing communications activities of business firms in the market. The researcher was of the opinion that this promising sector was unduly neglected.

As with the researcher's academic interest, the practical management rationale was also heavily influenced by the dearth of previous research both in Turkey and in international context in the following fields:

- research into travel agencies (According to Duke and Persia (1993), Mihalik *et al.* (1995), Oppermann (1999) and Ritchie (1966) this was also apparent in the international context).
- research into marketing communications in tourism (Kendall and Booms, 1989; and Yaman and Shaw, 1998) support the view that there is a dearth of international research in this field.
- research into domestic tourism (Kozak, 1999) and the lack of an appropriate infrastructure for carrying out tourism research in Turkey (Icoz, 1999).

The researcher was strongly motivated to make a meaningful contribution to research in this field, and the lack of previous research, rather than acting as a barrier, offered extended opportunities and justifications for undertaking the research.

### 1.1.3 Personal Interest

The *personal* interest of the researcher in *marketing communications* first started when he embarked on a four-year-degree programme in communications and media studies in 1982. During his studies the researcher wrote short texts, scripts and radio programmes to be broadcast on (TRT) Turkish Radio and Television Broadcasting Corporation's radio channels and had an opportunity to engage in the practice of communications and marketing communications.

After having completed his MBA (Master of Business Administration) degree, the researcher worked for two and a half years as a product manager for two fast moving consumer product lines which were household brands in Turkey. During this period, the researcher was involved in the design and implementation of marketing strategies (including marketing communications strategies) for these two product lines.

Additionally, the researcher has also acted as a consultant for various business firms operating in a variety of industries, in the design and preparation of company promotional materials, mainly in the form of brochures.

The *personal* motivation in the study of *tourism* was driven by the researcher's practical experience of package holidays as a consumer both in Turkey and abroad. The researcher travelled extensively in Turkey and in the United Kingdom both independently and by participating in organised package tours.

As a result of these practical experiences, the researcher felt that the application of sound, tested marketing principles was extremely limited, and that the process of designing, implementing and controlling marketing (communications) strategies, were, at best, ad hoc. Having spent the last thirteen years directly or indirectly involved in the British higher education system, the researcher has become familiar with the business culture in the UK, and has noted (anecdotally) enormous differences between the approach towards planning, designing, implementing and controlling marketing strategies in the UK and Turkey. The approach in the latter appeared far less systematic and rarely based on sound marketing principles. This formed the

background interest in this area. It was felt that there was a need to validate reliably what could have been only a “hunch”.

### **1.2.0 Research problem**

The main research problem was outlined by reference to a number of key primary questions:

1. How do customers of domestic tourism products in Turkey make a family holiday purchase decision?
  - What sort of processes and stages do they go through?
  - What roles do family members play in the decision making process?
2. What categories of information sources do customers use in making their holiday decision?
  - How do customers collect and process information when making their holiday decisions?
  - What roles do family members play in the information search process?
  - Are there differences between family members in terms of information collection and processing?
3. To what extent are marketing communications initiatives based on a thorough understanding of the needs and characteristics of identified target markets?

### 1.3.0 Overview

The research questions were investigated by a variety of methods –secondary research concerning consumer buying behaviour, marketing communications and tourism; and primary research involving initial exploratory interviews with tourists, key informant interviews, observations, focus group studies and final consumer interviews.

The literature review in Chapter 2 outlines the role of marketing communications as a marketing mix element and it endeavours:

- to examine the consumer decision making element of marketing communications. The contribution of both the traditional /linear and the contemporary models of decision making and information processing are discussed. The traditional /linear models appear to be artificial, and overly simplistic, and they take marketing communicators' intended meaning as a guiding principle of interpretation. They also assume the audience as merely drawing information from the marketing communications messages in a passive manner (Haskins, 1964; Festinger, 1964; Joyce, 1967; McDonald, 1980; Lannon, 1986; McCracken, 1987). On the other hand, non-linear models of decision making and information processing focus their attention on the content of marketing communications messages, the characteristics of the product or service being marketed, together with the individual differences of consumers.

Additionally, in Chapter 2, apart from providing a brief background to the traditional marketing communications tools and mediums, the role and potential of the Internet as a contemporary marketing communications tool or medium is also discussed. It was intended to examine and compare this medium and tool with the traditional tools and mediums of marketing communications. However, the emphasis of the research was placed on the traditional methods of marketing communications because:

- Informal meetings with industry experts during the early stages of

research indicated that the role of the Internet as a marketing communications tool was extremely limited in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

- The number of Internet users, though growing rapidly, was extremely low. In 1999 there were 580 000 Internet users in Turkey (EKONOMIST, 2000).
- To cover family and gender issues from the viewpoint of information processing, marketing communications and consumer decision making, due to the family nature of Turkish domestic tourism activity in general. In the absence of local research the researcher discusses the theories and models developed by international researchers.
- To serve as a general background to marketing communications in Turkey with the purpose of outlining and explaining the *status quo*.

Chapters 3 and 4 aim to establish the context of the tourism market, both from the demand and supply viewpoint. The function of this is to explore the context within which marketing communications activities are carried out. Chapter 3, after setting the general scene with a brief background to tourism, establishes the role of consumer decision making in marketing communications, based on consumer motivations and typologies of consumers. Chapter 4 focuses on Turkish tourism, and describes the main characteristics of demand and supply within the limitations of previous research.

The *research methodology* is detailed in Chapter 5. It demonstrates and emphasises the *flexible* development of the research design through time in response to ongoing primary and secondary research. The constraints inherent in tourism research in Turkey, imposed by contextual influences, necessitated the maximum accumulation of knowledge by each stage of research informing the next. For instance, the low response rate and the extent of completion by the respondents in the initial pilot mailed questionnaires forced the researcher to acknowledge that the interview method would be more appropriate than mailed questionnaires in the Turkish context. This

pattern, reflecting a willingness to show flexibility and pragmatism, was repeated throughout the research.

The *primary research* consisted of five interrelated stages:

- i) Initial exploratory interviews with tourists
- ii) Key informant interviews
- iii) Observations at travel agencies
- iv) Focus groups
- v) Final interviews with consumers

In the *exploratory interviews with tourists* the researcher aimed to familiarise himself with the domestic tourism market in general and the consumer decision making process in particular. The choice of couples with children was geared towards understanding family decision making behaviour.

The details of the exploratory interviews were carried into the *key informant interviews* in order to establish the perception and understanding of the market both from the demand and supply side. These interviews, apart from extending *exploration* of the market in general, were also used to compare the responses of tourists collected in the previous stage, to probe the extent to which suppliers were aware of the needs of the tourist, and ascertain how suppliers prepared their marketing mix to meet those needs.

*Observations at travel agencies* were planned to observe the interaction between the consumers and travel agency personnel from the viewpoint of consumer decision making. The observations also proved to be a good opportunity to compare data collected in the previous two stages of primary research. In general, the observations were of an unobtrusive type.

The fourth stage of the research used focus group studies. This stage was planned to gain a *deeper* understanding of consumer decision making and information processing, through the use of a variety of sample messages developed by the researcher. The focus group studies were semi-structured so as not to allow panellists



to drift away from the central themes of consumer decision making and information processing.

*Final interviews* with consumers consisted of a set of interviews with fifty males and fifty females, over a two-and-a-half month period.

The *analysis and interpretation of the findings in Chapter 6* focus on the primary research findings related to the key questions of research. The relevancy and transferability of western marketing *communications* and *tourism* theories and models to the Turkish context are discussed, and reflections on the theory of marketing communications and tourism are considered. Based on the interpretation of findings, a set of normative guidelines for marketing communications practitioners in Turkish domestic tourism are provided.

Finally, *Chapter 7* provides a restatement of the contribution of this research to academics and practitioners, including travel agency management and policy makers both at national and regional level. The chapter also provides a discussion of the transferability of international theories of tourism, marketing communications and consumer decision-making to the Turkish domestic tourism market.

## **Chapter 2 : Marketing Communications**

### **2.0.0 Overview**

#### **2.1.0 Marketing Concept**

#### **2.2.0 The Concept of Communication**

#### **2.3.0 Marketing Communications**

#### **2.3.1 Methods of Marketing Communications**

#### **2.3.2 Marketing Communications as a Process**

#### **2.3.3 The Theories and Models of Marketing Communications**

#### **2.3.4 The Role of Family and Gender in Consumer Decision Making and Marketing Communications**

#### **2.4.0 Marketing Communications and the Internet**

#### **2.5.0 Marketing Communications in Turkey**

#### **2.6.0 Conclusion**

*This chapter is intended to provide a theoretical background and a framework to 'the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market'. In the absence of local research, the theories and models developed by international researchers on marketing communications and consumer decision-making processes are discussed. Family and gender roles are emphasised due to the specific nature of family holidays in the domestic tourism market in Turkey. The relevancy and the transferability of these international theories and models will be discussed in Chapter 6 in the light of the findings of this research.*

*In addition, a brief background to marketing communications in Turkey will be provided at the end of the chapter in order to contextualise the research.*

### **2.1 Marketing Concept**

Marketing communications is one of the four elements of the marketing mix to implement the marketing concept in organisations. According to the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) “marketing is the management activity responsible for anticipating, identifying and satisfying customers’ requirements profitably”<sup>1</sup>. The

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<sup>1</sup> Dibb, S., Simkin, L., Pride, W.M., and Ferrel, O.C. (1994) Marketing Concepts and Strategies, Houghton and Mifflin, Boston, MA, p.4.

basic task of marketing is to combine the four elements of the marketing mix referred to as the 4Ps (McCarthy, 1960) into a marketing programme to facilitate the *exchange process* between the business organisation and its target market. The 4Ps of marketing are Product, Price, Place (Distribution) and Promotion (Marketing Communications).

Based on the above CIM definition of marketing, the marketing concept or the marketing orientation as a managerial approach can be said to include the following activities:

- a) *anticipating and identifying the needs and the requirements of the consumer* through planned and systematic market research.
- b) developing appropriate products and services and making them available at the right place, in the right amount, at the right price and communicating with the consumers to ensure them that their needs and requirements will be satisfied upon the purchase of the products and services developed by the firm.
- c) Carrying out the activities of a) and b) above in a continuous and dedicated manner in order to be able to respond to the changes in consumer tastes and in the environment.

Based on the above description, although it may appear to be an obvious and sensible managerial approach to adopt the marketing concept, this concept or orientation as a managerial approach has evolved from a number of earlier concepts as follows (Dibb *et al.*, 1994; Baker, 1995; and Kotler, 1997):

- i) The production concept
- ii) The product concept
- iii) The selling concept

i) The production concept

The technological developments after the Industrial Revolution in the second half of the nineteenth century and the scientific management movement has made it possible for business firms to produce their products in large quantities and reach economies of scale (Dibb *et al.*, 1994). These developments also made many products more affordable for consumers and caused an increase in the overall demand for most products. Managers of business firms thought that all they had to do was to concentrate on increasing the output by using new machines and the principles of scientific management.

Henry Ford's statement of "You can have any colour car, as long as it is black" (Dibb *et al.*, 1994) summarises the attitude of business firms adopting the production concept towards the needs and the requirements of the consumer. Business firms operating with the production orientation can be found today too, where they may attempt to produce as many products as possible per hour or cater for as many clients or customers as possible without noticing that they are becoming impersonal and insensitive towards the needs of consumers.

However, with the increasing numbers of producers in various markets, the choice for the consumer has increased and business firms adopting the production concept have found it difficult to achieve their objectives in the long run.

ii) The product concept

The product concept holds that the consumer will favour products or services that offer the most quality, performance, and features (Kotler, 1997). However, this orientation is fraught with problems as it represents an over-entanglement with the product and disregard for the needs and the requirements of the consumer. The product concept leads to marketing myopia (Levitt, 1960), where the producer becomes unable to realise that the consumer will not purchase a product, unless its quality, features and benefits are valued by the consumer. In other words, the consumer's perception or their judgement of the product counts, not the producer's.

### iii) The selling concept

The business firm adopting the selling concept operates under the principle that the consumer will not buy the firm's products unless the firm engages itself with aggressive selling and promotion activities. This concept apart from disregarding the consumer's needs and their requirements also represents a disregard of the long-term well-being of the consumer by not being concerned with the problems which may arise after the sale of the product or the service.

Peter Drucker's (1973:64-65) explanation of selling activity summarises the actual role of this activity within the marketing concept:

"There will always, one can assume, be need for selling. *But the aim of marketing is to make selling superfluous.* The aim of marketing is to know and understand the customer so well that the product or service fits him [or her] and sells itself. Ideally, marketing should result in a customer who is ready to buy. All that should be needed then is to make the product or service available".

### 2.2.0 The Concept of Communication

Marketing communications models and theories originate mainly from general communication theories or models.

The word *communication* comes from the Latin word of *communis* meaning "common". Thus, communication can be thought of as a process of establishing a commonness between the sender and the receiver (Schramm, 1955). Communication is defined by the Webster's Unabridged Encyclopedic Dictionary as "the act or process of imparting knowledge or making something known"<sup>2</sup>.

On the other hand, many of the definitions of communication offered by scholars from a scientific viewpoint concentrated on the *transactional* nature of the process for the *exchange* of meaning between two parties (Schramm, 1955; Schannon, and Weaver 1962; Theodorson and Theodorson 1969; Schramm, 1983; Fabun, 1987;

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<sup>2</sup> Webster's Unabridged Encyclopedic Dictionary of the English Language Gramercy Books: New York, 1996

Rossiter and Percy 1987; Infante *et al.*, 1990; Griffin, 1990; Engel *et al.*, 1994; Kotler, 1997).

Schramm's (1955) communication model, shown in Figure 2.1 below, can be referred to as the composite of perspectives and theories that have appeared in the vast literature of this subject. It explains the communication process as 'the transmission of information, ideas, attitudes, or emotion from one person or group to another person or a group'.

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Figure 2.1 A Model of Communication Process – Schramm, W. (1955) How communication works, in *The Process and Effects Mass Communications* W. Schramm (ed.), Urbana IL: University of Illinois Press, pp.3-26.

The Schramm's (1955) model which was developed further by Shannon and Weaver (1962) included the following elements:

- 1      *Source* which is the person or organisation sending the message.
- 2      *Encoding* which is the activity of transferring the intended message into a symbolic style that can be transmitted.
- 3      *Signal* which is the message transmitted using particular media.
- 4      *Decoding* which is the process of interpreting the symbolic style of message in

order to understand the message.

- 5 *Receiver* which is the person or group receiving the message.
- 6 *Feedback* which is the receiver's communication back to the source on receipt of the message. This time the receiver becomes the source of the message directed at the initial sender of the message.
- 7 *Noise* is any omission and distortion of the communication process, making it difficult for the receiver to interpret the message as intended by the source.

Kelman (1961) argued that source credibility, source attractiveness and source power are the three necessary source characteristics for an effective communication process to take place. However, as Eagly and Chaiken (1975) found, high- and low-credibility may not always be the key factors for persuasion and hence effectiveness in communication. Additionally, decision making or problem solving approaches based on credibility and attractiveness of the source is called heuristic decision making and is associated with the low level of elaboration, ie the low level of involvement (Statt, 1997). In other words, the receiver may be more interested in the qualities of the sender than the content of the message. The heuristic devices such as credibility of the sender and liking for/attractiveness of the sender and message can create a halo effect about the content of the message (Craig, 1979; Eagly and Chaiken 1984; Kahneman *et al.*, 1982; Langer, 1978; Schneider and Shiffrin, 1977; Slater and Rouner, 1996). Therefore, the credibility and attractiveness may act as noise in the decision making, by taking the emphasis away from the content of the message. Based on the above discussion, the researcher is inclined to reject the view that persuasion may take place in a communication process without a full understanding of the message by the receiver and the fact that the credibility of the sender and the attractiveness of the sender and the message are more important than the content of the message.

Moreover, as the proponents of *deconstructionism* argued, it can be stated that it is a mistake to view the sender's/author's intended meaning as a guiding principle of interpretation [see Barthes (1977); Foucault (1979); Mick (1992)] as suggested in

Schramm's (1955) linear model of communication. In other words, what the sender had in mind (coded/constructed) may not turn out to be what was decoded/deconstructed by the receiver at the other end. For instance, language does not function as a system of symbols that directly correspond to the author's/sender's intent, but rather polysemic, containing multiple meanings, and therefore, subject to various interpretations (Ahuvia, 1998).

Engel *et al.*'s (1994) definition of the communication process is very similar to Schramm's (1955) in the sense that the emphasis of both definitions are on the transmission of meaning from the sender to the receiver. Engel *et al.* (1994) concentrated on the following three aspects of communication:

- Communication is intentional and deliberate, especially when the objective is to persuade the receiver/s of the message.
- Communication is a transaction. In other words, it is an exchange process (Bowersox and Morash, 1989).
- Communication is symbolic. Symbols (words, pictures, etc) are employed to express meaning (Boulding, 1956; Levy, 1959; and Cronthike, 1986).

The three characteristics of communication offered by Engel *et al.* (1994) to outline the main features of the communication process in general terms are applicable to the marketing communications process where the ultimate aim of the communicator is to *persuade* consumers to purchase products or services through establishing meaning by the use of *symbols* in an *exchange* process.

### **2.3.0 Marketing Communications**

In general terms, communication can be described as the transfer of meaning from one person or group to another person or a group. On the other hand, marketing communications involves the transfer of meaning from a firm to its target market. However, the purpose of marketing communications activity is to *persuade* the



potential *target market* with a view to develop a positive attitude towards the firm and its *products/services* (Engel *et al.*, 1994; Chisnall, 1994; Dibb *et al.*, 1996; Kotler, 1997; Smith, 1998; Fill, 1999; Kitchen, 1999). This positive attitude is expected to result in the positive behaviour, ie the purchase of the firms' products and services (Batra and Ray, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Lutz *et al.*, 1983; Mitchell, 1986; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp and Yokun, 1982). Therefore, the main purpose of marketing communications is to create and increase sales through attitude formation and change (Ogilvy, 1983).

It needs to be made clear at the start that from the marketing terminology viewpoint marketing communications and promotion both refer to the same methods and processes which consist of a communication between a firm and its target market aimed at developing a positive attitude towards the firm and its products/services (Engel, *et al.*, 1994; Chisnall, 1994 ; Dibb *et al.*, 1996; Kotler, 1997; Smith, 1998; Fill 1999; and Kitchen, 1999).

The marketing communications or promotion objectives for a firm may include the following (Fill, 1999):

- inform the potential customers;
- persuade them;
- remind them;
- differentiate products and services from the other products and services.

The objectives offered by Fill (1999) are similar to Shimp's (1997). However, Shimp (1997) also included one more objective called *inducing action*, ie directing the potential consumers to purchase, which is the ultimate aim of marketing communications. The four objectives of advertising [marketing communications] suggested by Davis *et al.* (1991) are comprehensive which can summarise the objectives of marketing communications:

- sales response,
- persuasion,

- involvement; and
- saliency.

Achievement of the marketing communications objectives through persuading consumers and inducing action and hence, the success of a marketing communications message, depends on the appropriateness of the message for the target audience. The evidence on consumer attitudes toward marketing communications shows that consumers prefer messages that help in their decision making (Zannot, 1984). Providing information that differentiates a brand from its competitors tends to increase commercial recall, comprehension and *persuasion* (Stewart and Furse, 1986; Stewart and Koslow, 1989). In his empirical study Ducoffe (1995) found informativeness to be the single factor most strongly correlated with overall marketing communications value. Researchers such as Holbrook and Batra (1987), Batra and Ray (1986), Gardner (1985), Lutz *et al.* (1983), Moore and Hutchinson (1983), Park and Young (1986), Shimp (1981), Shimp and Yokun (1982), Edell and Burke (1987) agreed that marketing communications can help in establishing a favourable attitude toward the message, which in turn helps create a favourable attitude towards the brand and results in intention to purchase.

Substantial interest has been shown especially in *advertising* as a marketing communications method by the early writers such as Strong (1925), Colley (1961), Rogers (1962), Lavidge and Steiner (1961) and Sandage and Fryburger (1963) due to its saliency, its mass impact and the sheer size of the industry together with its significance since it constitutes a greater proportion of expenditure in the marketing communications budgets of most businesses (Pulford, 1998)<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, the emphasis on advertising as a marketing communications method will be reflected in this research project. However, it is believed that each of the methods of marketing communications needs to be explained and analysed first before exploring the marketing communications process.

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<sup>4</sup> See also Figure 2.2 for the main characteristics of marketing communications methods.

### 2.3.1 Methods of Marketing Communications

In general terms there are two types of communications which a consumer in a target market may experience (Sciffman and Kanuk, 1991); interpersonal communications and impersonal or mass communications. Interpersonal communication takes place at a personal level between two or more people and forms an essential element of the consumer's experience of the products and services. On the other hand, impersonal communication is directed at target markets, using such methods as advertising, sales promotion and public relations. These methods will be explained below in more detail.

The methods of marketing communications or the marketing communications mix has been perceived traditionally to consist of four elements in general (Engel *et al.*, 1994; Chisnall, 1995; Smith; 1995; Assael, 1995; Fill, 1999; Croft 1999):

- Media advertising (commercial television, radio, newspapers, periodicals, billboards, brochures etc.);
- sales promotion;
- public relations;
- personal selling.

However, in line with the changes in social, technological and economic environments, new approaches to marketing communications mix elements have been developed. Smith (1995) offers a more comprehensive list of the marketing communications mix than the one mentioned above including: advertising, sales promotion, publicity (and public relations), personal selling, sponsorship, exhibitions, packaging, point-of-sale merchandising, direct marketing, the Internet, corporate identity and the word of mouth.

As the four main methods of marketing communications, ie advertising, public relations, sales promotion and personal selling are still considered as the main methods of marketing communications, these four methods will be reviewed and references will be made to the newer elements of marketing communications where necessary. Before reviewing these methods of marketing communications individually, a general summary of the characteristics of these methods is provided (See Figure 2.2).

		Sales	Public	Personal
	Advertising	Promotion	Relations	Selling
<b>CHARACTERISTICS</b>				
<b>Communications</b>				
Ability to deliver a personal message	Low	Low	High	High
Ability to reach a large audience	High	Medium	Medium	Low
Level of interaction	Low	Low	Low	High
<b>Costs</b>				
Absolute costs	High	Medium	Low	High
Cost per contact	Low	Medium	Low	High
Wastage	High	Medium	High	Low
Size of investment	High	Medium	Low	High
<b>Control</b>				
Ability to target particular audiences	Medium	High	Low	Medium
Management's ability to adjust the method of deployment as circumstances change	Medium	High	Low	Medium

Figure 2.2 A summary of the Key Characteristics of the Methods of Marketing Communications - Adapted from Chris Fill (1999), "Marketing Communications : Contexts, Contents and Strategies", Prentice Hall Europe, Hertfordshire, pp.9.

### 2.3.1.1 Advertising

Advertising can be defined as "any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services" (Peter and Olson, 1996). Advertising allows the use of a wide variety of media including newspapers, television, radio, magazines, direct mail, brochures, billboards and so on.

Advertising is pervasive and its significance as a marketing communications tool cannot be underestimated. Due to the saliency of this phenomenon it has often been mistaken for the whole process of marketing communications and sometimes even for the whole marketing activity (Kotler, 1997). To demonstrate the volume of the

advertising both in the world and in Turkey annual turnover generated within this industry can be used as an indicator. In 1996 the world advertising spending reached \$ 291 billion<sup>5</sup>. In Turkey total advertising spending including the production costs accumulated to \$ 900 in 1996 and \$ 1.2 billion in 1999<sup>6</sup>.

### 2.3.1.2 Sales Promotions

Blattberg and Neslin (1990) define sales promotions as “consisting of a diverse collection of incentive tools, mostly short term, designed to stimulate quicker and/or greater purchase of particular products/services by consumers or the trade”. While advertising can be thought of as offering a *reason* to buy, sales promotions can be thought of as offering an *incentive* to buy through inducing customers at conative, ie action level (Holloway and Robinson, 1995). *The incentives offered as sales* promotion may include; coupons, contests, games, lotteries, rebates, special discounts, sampling, low interest financing, gifts, etc.

Although sales promotion can be seen as a secondary tool of marketing communications, due to the glamour of advertising, its significance has grown substantially over the past two decades, though quantification of sales promotions spending is not as easy as it is for advertising (Shimp, 1997). Ferry (1988) observed the development of sales promotion against advertising in the USA between 1977 and 1987 and found that the use of sales promotion as a marketing communications tool increased from 58% to 65%. Strang (1976) and Baker (1985) also support the view that there is an increase in sales promotion as a form of marketing communications, mainly because of business firms’ disenchantment with advertising. Strang (1976) attributed the growth of sales promotions to the following internal and external factors:

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<sup>5</sup> World Advertising Spending, The Economist, 18<sup>th</sup> January 1997, pp.112

<sup>6</sup> Turkish Advertising Association, <http://www.rd.org.tr/harcamalar96.html>,  
<http://www.rd.org.tr/harcamalar97.html> <http://www.rd.org.tr/harcamalar98.html>,  
<http://www.rd.org.tr/harcamalar99.html>

### **Internal Factors**

- Sales promotion has now gained more acceptance by top management as an effective sales tool
- There are more product managers qualified to use sales promotion tools.
- Product managers are under greater pressure to increase their current sales.

### **External Factors**

- The proliferation of brands.
- Consumers are more price oriented compared with the past.
- Customers are becoming less loyal (O'Connor, and Galvin, 1997).
- Many brands are seen as similar in terms of their attributes.
- Advertising efficiency has declined.

#### **2.3.1.3 Public Relations and Publicity**

Public relations is defined by Middleton (1998) as “the deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain a mutual understanding between an organisation and the public”. In short public relations and publicity refer to any unpaid form of communication to develop a positive attitude about a firm and/or its products (Peter and Olson, 1996). As a marketing communications method, public relations includes the following activities (Kotler, 1997):

- Press relations: Presenting news and information about the firm in the most positive way possible.
- Product publicity: Sponsoring various efforts to publicise specific products or services.
- Corporate communication: Promoting understanding of the organisation with internal and external customers.
- Lobbying: Dealing with legislators and government officials to promote or defeat legislation and regulation.

As public relations does not involve the purchase of media space, there is limited control by the business on what appears in the media. Care needs to be taken in the design of the messages as they may not be deconstructed by the consumers the way they were intended by the marketing communicators. For instance, the latest campaign of the Turkish Ministry of Tourism in 1999, which made use of various mediums, including the Internet, turned out to be a failure, because consumers drew a different meaning from the message intended initially. The Ministry of Tourism attempted to reduce the perception of risk and promote Turkey as *a safe holiday destination*<sup>7</sup>. However, using safety claims in the messages reminded potential consumers of the risk factor related to going on a holiday in Turkey.

#### **2.3.1.4 Personal Selling**

Personal selling can be defined as a process of informing customers and persuading them to purchase through personal communication (Dibb *et al.*, 1994).

Holloway and Robinson (1995) argued that as the customer and the personnel interface is high in the travel and tourism sector, special attention needs to be paid to the personal selling activity and the social and interpersonal skills involved.

The role of *word of mouth communication* and the benefits of a satisfied customer promoting a firm's product or services also should not be underestimated as a marketing communications tool, as it is recognised that much communication about products and services takes place in this form. Assael (1995) and Peter and Olson (1996) emphasised the role of friends and relatives in influencing the choice of the consumer.

#### **2.3.2 Marketing Communications as a Process**

Although Delozier's (1976) definition of the marketing communications process is a rather long one, it is useful in the sense that it explains the whole process comprehensively:

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<sup>7</sup> <http://www.tursab.org.tr/haberler>

“the process of presenting an integrated set of stimuli to a market with the intent of evoking a desired set of responses within that market set and setting up channels to receive, interpret and act upon messages from the market for the purposes of modifying present messages and identifying new communication opportunities”.

The *evoking of a desired set of responses* in Delozier’s (1976) definition refer to the act of persuasion of the consumer which involves the changing of *beliefs, attitudes, and behavioural intentions* leading to purchase action as a direct consequence of marketing communications messages (Peter and Olson, 1996). The relationship between marketing communications and the consumer behaviour as two sub-fields within marketing is obvious and hence any research study on marketing communications needs to analyse and discuss the theories and models of consumer behaviour.

Churchill (1995) sees *attitudes* as one of the most pervasive notions in all of marketing. Attitudes *directly affect* purchase decisions and these, in turn, *directly affect* attitudes through experience in using the product or service selected (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1967 and 1991 Batra and Ray, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Lutz *et al.*, 1983, Mitchell, 1986; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp and Yokun, 1982; Zannot, 1984). Academic researchers, therefore, use attitude as an important explanatory variable in creating models of behaviour (Churchill, 1995).

The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines consumer behaviour as “the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour and environmental events by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives”<sup>8</sup>. Therefore, understanding consumers is closely linked to understanding what they think (cognition), feel (affect) and do (behaviour) together with situational and environmental variables that influence and are influenced by what consumers think, feel and do (Peter and Olson 1996). Peter and Olson (1996), Guirdham (1986) and Shimp (1997) argued that understanding beliefs and attitudes are vital to the understanding of consumer behaviour and emphasised the role of understanding

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<sup>8</sup> Bennett, P.D. (1989) Dictionary of Marketing Terms, Chicago: American Marketing Association, p.40.



consumer behaviour in developing effective marketing communications messages (Shimp, 1997).

Churchill (1995) summarises the characteristics of attitudes most commonly agreed by the scholars as follows:

- Attitude represents a predisposition to respond to an object, not actual behaviour toward the object. Attitude thus possesses the quality of readiness.
- Attitude is persistent over time. It can change, to be sure, but alteration of an attitude that is strongly held requires substantial pressure.
- Attitude is a latent variable that produces consistency in behaviour, either verbal or physical.
- Attitude has directional quality. It connotes a preference regarding the outcomes involving the object, evaluations of the object, or positive/neutral/negative feelings for the object.

What consumers think (cognition), feel (affect) and what they do (conative) are the three components of attitudes (Guirdham 1986; Peter and Olson, 1996; Fill, 1999). Attitudes are favourable and unfavourable dispositions towards objects, people, and events or towards attributes of any of these (Allport, 1935; Sorrentino and Higgins, 1986; Guirdham, 1996). Behaviours on the other hand are specific actions directed at some target object (Shimp and Kavas, 1984).

There have been differences among researchers as to the determinants of attitudes. For instance, Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995) argued that *attitude* formation can only be cognitively based and other “non-belief-based” determinants do not exist. On the other hand, the result of the studies of Allen and Madden (1985), Shimp (1991); Zajonc *et al.* (1982) pointed out that attitudes were not always belief based and that affect, ie emotion transfer can be used in attitude formation. However, these studies can be criticised on the basis that unconditioned stimuli, which are able to generate affect, also have the potential to convey meaning ie cognition.

As previous research is inconclusive, the researcher is of the opinion that rather than taking cognition and affect as rivals in attitude formation, a more holistic approach

can be followed. Both affect and cognition can be seen as the two components of attitude and their roles in the process of attitude formation and information processing may vary. For a better understanding of attitudes and behaviour, both the cognitive and affective components need to be analysed in conjunction with the conative, ie the action element which is of major interest to marketing managers.

### **Cognitive component**

The cognitive component or cognition refers to the level of *knowledge* and *beliefs* held by an individual about a product and/or the beliefs about specific attributes of the offering. This cognitive component represents the learning aspect of attitude formation (Fill, 1999). Beliefs can be categorised as informational beliefs and evaluative beliefs. *Informational beliefs represent what a person believes about the facts of a situation or an object, etc.* While evaluative beliefs represent what a person believes about the merits, demerits, rights, wrongs, benefits or costs of different situations and objects.

Beliefs constitute an associative network of linked meanings stored in the memory (Peter and Olson, 1996). Only a few beliefs can be activated and consciously considered at a point in time, as people's cognitive capacity is limited. Salient beliefs refer to those few beliefs that are activated and consciously considered. Related to salient beliefs, Peter and Olson (1996) propose four possible attitude –change strategies:

- i) add a new salient belief about the attitude object – ideally a positive one. For instance the communication message might say 'you will have the opportunity to rest and relax in our package holidays as we are offering.....'
- ii) increase the strength of an existing positive belief. For instance, the travel agency may provide statistical information from previous consumer surveys to substantiate that tourists were satisfied with the travel agency's holiday packages.
- iii) improve the evaluation of a strongly held belief; or

- iv) make an existing favourable belief more salient.

#### **Affective component**

This component is concerned with feelings, sentiments, moods and emotions held about an object. As explained above, affect refers to feeling (emotional) responses, while cognition consists of mental (thinking) responses. Although the two systems are distinct, they are closely interconnected, and each system can influence and be influenced by the other (Izard 1984; Harre *et al.*, 1985; and Putchnik, 1980).

Kroeber-Riel (1979) outlined four types of positive and negative affective responses:

- emotions - happiness, joy, regret and anger;
- specific feelings - admiration, satisfaction;
- moods - bored, relaxed; and
- evaluations – favourable and unfavourable.

The amount and intensity of cognitive processing varies widely across:

- *particular situations* - whether there is extensive problem solving (eg as in the case of the purchase of a car) or routine purchase behaviour (eg as in the case of the purchase of fast moving consumer goods);
- *specific products* - the degree of involvement; and
- *individual consumers* - whether the consumer is a laggard or an early adopter.

All of these influences will be dealt with later in greater detail when the marketing communications process is discussed in the light of theories and models.

#### **Conative component**

This is the action component of the attitude formation and refers to the individual's disposition or intention to behave in a certain way. Marketing practitioners are more interested in the consumer's overt *behaviour*, especially her/his purchase behaviour.

The extent to which cognition and affect will result in action may depend on the characteristics of an attitude: saliency, consistency and intensity (Guirdham, 1996). Saliency refers to the extent which attitudes are central to the consumer's sense of what sort of a person he or she is and his or her personal values. On the other hand, consistency relates to the degree to which three components ie cognitive, affective and conative are similar or consistent with each other. For instance, someone who persists in a high and regular level of alcohol consumption, despite believing that drinking alcohol is damaging to health and feeling unhappy about their habit, has an attitude which is low in consistency. Finally, intensity of an attitude represents the strength of feeling involved in an attitude.

The relationship between attitudes and behaviour has attracted substantial interest by many researchers. Early researchers like LaPiere (1934) and Wicker (1969) concluded that attitudes were unrelated or slightly related to overt behaviour. Having studied LaPiere's (1934) research, the researcher is of the opinion that it is difficult to make a generalisation based on his social research as he appears to have compared *beliefs* with behaviour rather than *attitudes* with behaviour by overlooking the *action* component of attitudes and disregarding objectivity in his research since his involvement in the data collection process seems to have influenced the outcomes.

Many authors (Batra and Ray, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Lutz *et al.*, 1983, Mitchell, 1986; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp and Yokun, 1982; and O'Keefe 1990) who have looked at the relationship between attitudes and behaviour, seem to agree that attitudes developed by certain stimuli lead to or influence behaviour.

The following three features of attitudes suggested by O'Keefe (1990) establish the relationship between the behaviour and attitudes:

- they are *learned*;
- they are relatively *enduring*; and
- they *influence the behaviour*.

Ajzen (1991) developed a model called “The Theory of Reasoned Action” based on Ajzen and Fishbein ‘s (1977 and 1980) previous work to explain the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. This theory proposes that behaviour is determined directly by an intention to behave and intention, in turn, is influenced by the attitude.

According to this theory, people tend to perform behaviours that are evaluated favourably by other people. Consumers tend to refrain from behaviours that are regarded unfavourably and that are unfavourable to others. For instance ‘whether one’s family are in favour of staying at a holiday village rather than at a hotel may determine the purchase decision’.

After elaborating the interference of internal and external forces on attitudes Ajzen (1991) developed a more detailed model of consumer behaviour to explain the relationship between attitudes and behaviours and called it “The Theory of Planned Behaviour”. This model outlined that external influences including the physical, social and marketing environments and internal variables such as values, goals, lifestyles, personality traits, demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education, and etc, and psychological characteristics influence attitudes and consumer behaviour.

So far, the viewpoints of researchers who concentrated on the influence of attitudes on behaviour have been discussed. However, it needs to be noted that considering the relationship between attitudes and behaviour from a one-way-influence-perspective is *incomplete* as behaviour, in turn, influences the attitudes and future behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1991). For instance, if a consumer is satisfied with a product or service after purchasing it, her/his positive attitude towards that product or service will be reinforced and s/he may be expected to purchase that product or service in the future (Teare *et al.*, 1994). On the other hand, if a consumer is not satisfied with a product or service after purchasing it, s/he may be expected to develop a negative attitude to purchase that product or service in future. However, it is not the scope of this research to investigate how behaviour influences attitudes. As stated earlier on, this researcher is concerned with establishing a relationship between newspaper advertisements, as a form of marketing communications stimuli in influencing attitudes of potential customers. Ideally the researcher would have preferred to be in

a position to research the relationship between various advertising messages and the actual *purchase behaviour* rather than the *attitudes*.

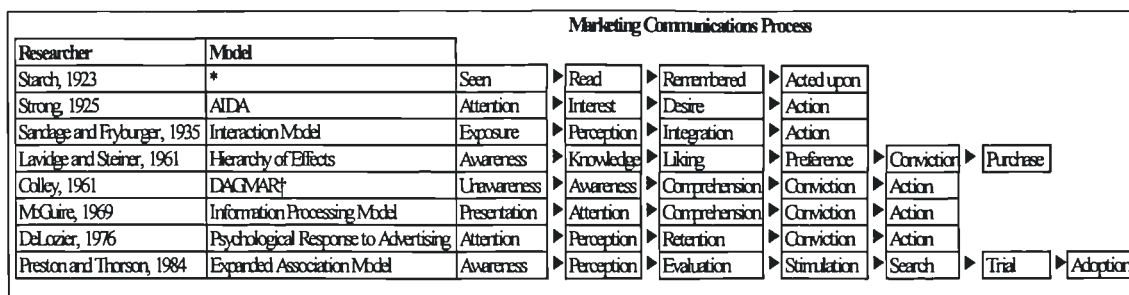
Based on the discussion so far it can be concluded that there is a relationship between attitudes and the behaviour. However, for a better understanding of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour and how attitudes and behaviours are formed, an analysis of the theories and models developed by various researchers needs to be analysed.

### 2.3.3 The Theories and Models of Marketing Communications

Various theories and models have been developed to analyse and explain the marketing communications process. Both the traditional, linear or hierarchical models of marketing communications and the more contemporary models such as the Consumer Processing Model and Hedonic Experiential Model and Elaboration Likelihood Model will be critically analysed from a theoretical and practical standpoint.

#### 2.3.3.1 Linear Models of Marketing Communications

Similar to Schramm's (1955) mass communication model, these early prescriptive models of marketing communications, which are also called hierarchical or sequential models, have assumed that people go through a series of stages before reaching a decision. Figure 2.3 summarises the main linear models of marketing communications.



\* This model was not given a title by Starch (1923). (He argued that for an advertisement to be effective it needed to be seen, read, remembered and acted upon).

† DAGMAR stands for Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results.

Figure 2.3 A Summary of Hierarchical Models of Marketing Communications

Source: Adapted from Keith Crossier (1995), Marketing Communications in M. J. Baker, (ed.) Marketing Theory and Practice, McMillan Press, Hampshire, pp. 226-227.

As can be seen from Figure 2.3, all of the linear models assume that the target audience or consumers go through more or less the same decision making process against a given marketing stimuli. Although these linear models provide basic frameworks to understand the complex process of information processing and attitude change, they fail to take personal, cultural, demographic, situational and product related differences into account.

Serious concerns have been expressed by many writers about the value of the linear/ sequential models in understanding marketing communications and consumer decision making processes. The critics of the linear/ sequential models (Haskins, 1964; Festinger, 1964; Palda, 1966; Joyce, 1967; Ehrenberg, 1974; Fishbein, 1975; McDonald, 1980, Petty *et al.*, 1981; Lannon, 1986) stated that linear models had limited use and were incomplete because:

- not all buyers go through all stages.
- the stages do not necessarily occur in a hierarchical sequence
- impulse purchases shorten the process.

Lannon (1986) argued that linear models have treated marketing communications as acting in an active way on more or less passive people. The consumer should not be thought of as merely drawing information from the marketing communications, as they are actively involved in assigning meanings to the product or service promoted (McCracken, 1987). It can now be argued that the linear flow models depended on inappropriate psychological theories without sufficient empirical evidence. For instance, Colley (1961) did not provide any empirical evidence to explain his model and described it as “applied commonsense”. As Festinger (1964) Joyce (1967) Ehrenberg (1974) and Fishbein (1975) pointed out the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is more complex and the link between these two factors have not been fully understood. Sequential models overgeneralised consumer behaviour and ignored many factors which may influence consumers’ decision making process such as personality, attitudes, beliefs, gender, culture, etc (Ahuvia, 1998).

Linear models can be also criticised due to the fact that they overlooked the role of the receiver ie the target audience in the communications process. Haskins (1964) admitted that learning and recall of factual information from mass communication media occur, but he strongly argued that the recall and retention methods adopted by the linear model writers “at best, are irrelevant to the ultimate effects desired, viz. the changing of attitudes and behaviour”.

Finally, proponents of the sequential models failed to take unconscious motivation or self-expressive choice into account. McDonald (1980) argued that it was “ inadequate to view the marketing communications process as one of causality: pushing otherwise passive consumers to buy following exposure to advertised products and services”. He further commented that the approach to marketing communications “should start with acknowledging that people respond to communication, not that consumers are subject to it”.

#### **2.3.3.2 Consumer Processing Model (CPM) and Hedonic Experiential Model (HEM)**

The two paradigms, Consumer Processing Model (CPM) and Hedonic Experiential Model (HEM) (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; and Thorson 1990) attempt to explain the ways in which consumers process marketing information. The Consumer Processing Model assumes behaviour as “rational, highly cognitive, systematic and reasoned” (Shimp, 1997), and the Hedonic Experiential Model regards the pursuit of “fantasies, feelings and fun” (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) as the basis of behaviour.

As Shimp (1997) proposed, both of these extreme cases can be correct, ie the behaviour results from both logic and emotion, and consumer behaviour is much more complex and diverse than the two extremes of each model would individually suggest. The models should, therefore, be conceived as operating on a continuum embracing both rational and hedonic information processing. At the one end of this spectrum or continuum is consumer behaviour that is based on *pure reason*-cold, logical and rational; ie. the behaviour described by CEM perspective. At the other end of the



continuum is consumer behaviour that is based on *pure passion* – hot, spontaneous, and perhaps irrational ie. the behaviour described by the HEM perspective.

The points put forward by Shimp (1997) about the relationship between the CPM and HEM models resemble the discussion on the components of attitudes (cognitive, affective and conative) in 2.3.2, which demonstrated that attitudes had both cognitive and affective ie emotional elements within them. Therefore, based on the premise that attitudes have both cognitive and affective, ie emotional components, and attitudes influence behaviours, Shimp's (1997) proposal appears to be justified.

The cognitive perspective regards people as actively searching for verbal and factual information consistent with their logical and cognitive characteristics. The cognitive paradigm emphasised the importance of consumer beliefs in information processing and elevated the processing of verbal information to the exclusion of other senses (Holbrook, 1980). The consideration of emotions did not go beyond rating tangible product features (Holbrook, 1980). Levy (1980) and Shimp (1997) argued that cognitive elements of the communication are less valid for products or services which are purchased to fulfil emotional needs, for example, opera, music, sports, perfumes and leisure. Burnstin (1990) emphasises the *emotional* connotations of tourism products and mentions its resemblance to "play" (Fournier and Guiry, 1993) and "daydreaming". As will be discussed in Chapter 3, tourism represents a physical, social and emotional move away from one's usual habitat (Jafari, 1987) in the search for and emulation of a life different from or opposed to what tourists have in their ordinary world (Witt and Moutinho, 1995). 'King for a day' and 'Peasant for a day' are among the vast range of inversions possible in the *world of non-ordinary* (Witt and Moutinho, 1995). Witt and Moutinho (1995) describe this fantasy, illusion, or dream which is inherent in the tourism activity as:

"the sort of freedom or animation that the player on the springboard feels once suspended in the air or the sense of flotation the surfer has on the top of a rolling wave. The expressive thrust of fantasy, which both fuels and is fuelled by the *tourist culture*, further nurtures and lubricates touristic manifestations. Fantasy becomes the ink in which tourism's script is written and its magnet stretched, especially so under the powerful influence of travel advertising. It can extend the already long list of touristic S's (sun, sea, sand, surf, sex, snow) to include even *sin*".

In cognitive perspective, consumption as play (leisure), sensory pleasure, daydreaming and aesthetically and emotional fulfilling experiences is ignored. Fournier and Guiry (1993) suggest that for some individuals longing for an object of their desire is filled with so many enjoyable fantasies, it virtually satisfies needs and wants in its own right. In this case it is difficult for the cognitive paradigm to make sense of this hedonic experience. As an earlier writer, Maslow (1968) stated, emotional desires can override functional motives in particular circumstances. For instance, the consumer's deductive reasoning based on economic criteria can be superseded by emotions such as love, hate or anger (Dichter, 1960). Hedonic consumption occurs within an individual's creation of a "perfect world" which is typically far removed from reality (Holbrook, and Hirschman, 1982; Dichter, 1960).

Additionally, the language and delivery of persuasive appeals need to vary for hedonic and cognitive consumers. While cognitive consumers actively search for verbal information, hedonic consumers are less active but when they do search it will be for sensory information (Lofman, 1991; Venkatraman, and MacInnis, 1985). Myers-Levy (1985, 1988 and 1991) found fundamental differences between males and females in terms of cognitive and hedonic information processing. He concluded that females are more comprehensive information processors than males and females look for both cognitive (objective) and hedonic (affective) ie-emotional cues in the process. Thus Myers-Levy (1985, 1988, 1991) suggested that when the target market is male the number of pieces of information provided should be limited to a few salient attributes of the product or service as males tend to process information selectively on the basis of predetermined criteria. The author of this research will focus on gender differences from a cognitive and hedonic information processing perspective due to their relevancy within this context.

Apart from gender, cultural differences may influence the information processing of consumers. For instance, Samli (1995) proposed that in collectivist societies like Turkey, consumers tend to be more influenced by affective claims. The findings of Esmer's (1999) cross-cultural social values research are supportive of Hofstede's (1980) as they both classified Turks on the whole as highly risk averse. In other words, in this culture the tolerance for risk appears to be low. Esmer (1999) also found that Turks individually had low confidence for other people in the society

which may reflect itself in people engaging in comprehensive information processing and preferring non-personal methods of marketing communications methods.

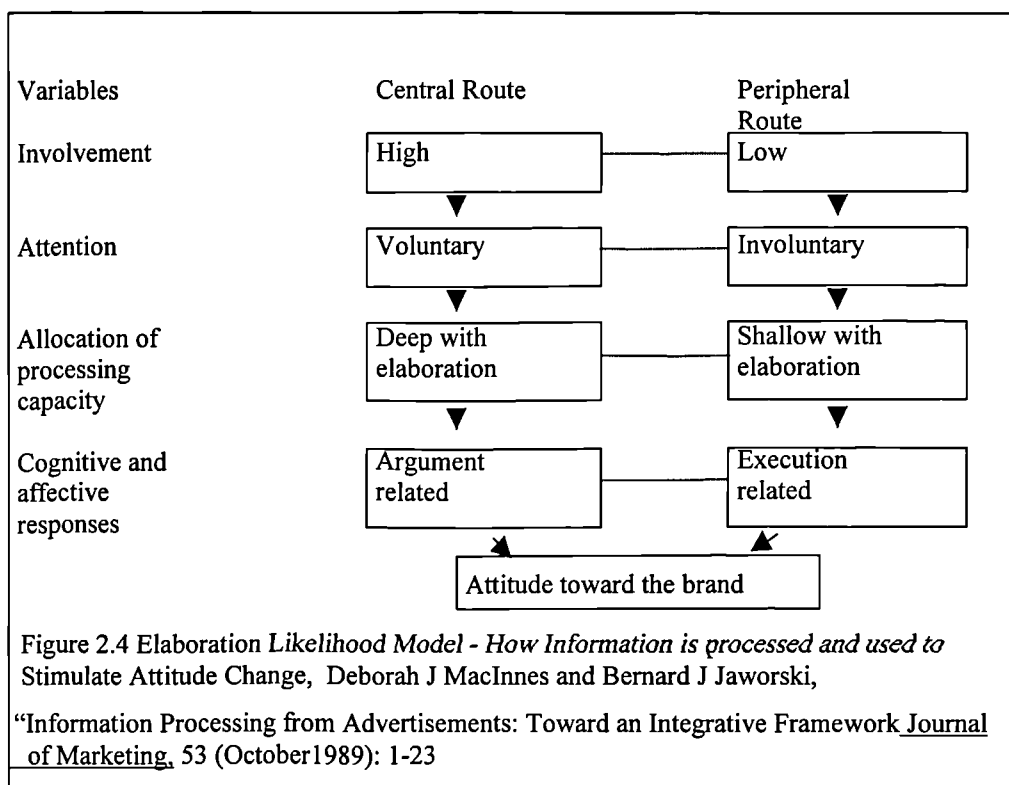
However, in the same study females, compared with males, tended to have higher tolerance for risk and were more open to change (Esmer, 1999) and persuasion (Eagly and Carli, 1981).

To conclude marketing communicators need to recognise that individuals are motivated to consume either through sensory-emotive or cognitive information stimulation (Hirschman, 1982; Zuckerman, 1979) and they need to develop appropriate marketing communications messages.

### **2.3.3.3 Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)**

Consumer behaviour literature suggests two types of information processing; a central route involving cognitive elaboration, and a peripheral route with an affective or emotional response (Chaiken and Stangor, 1987; Pechman and Stewart, 1989; and Petty and Cacioppo, 1986; Manfredo and Bright, 1990). Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) model of ELM attempts to explain how cognitive processing, persuasion and attitude change occurs when different levels of involvement are present. Elaboration refers to the extent to which an individual needs to develop and refine information necessary to reach a purchase decision. As Figure 2.4 depicts, elaboration (central route) would be high, if an individual has a high level of motivation or ability to process information.

On the other hand, elaboration is expected to be low (peripheral route), if the individual's motivation and ability are also low.

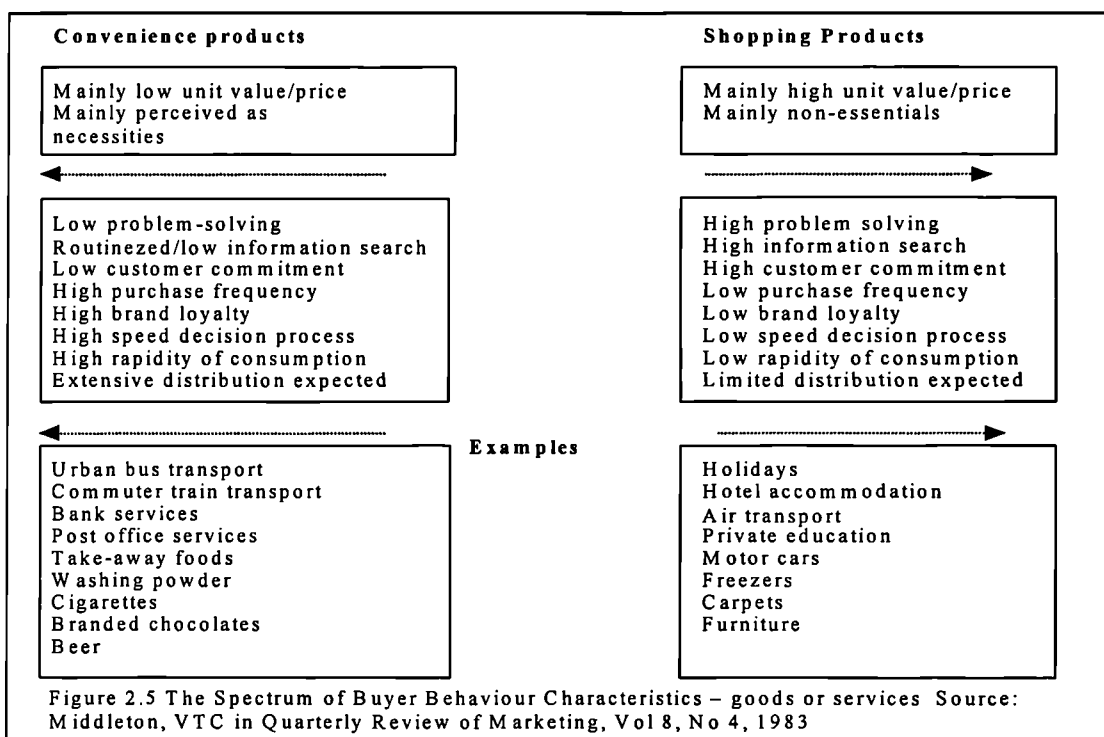


Research in cognitive and social psychology has suggested that at times, people engage in deep and mindful analysis of stimuli (complex buying behaviour), and at other times their analysis is likely to be shallow (limited or routine buying behaviour), mindless and heuristically based (Craik, 1979; Eagly and Chaiken 1984; Kahneman, *et al.*, 1982; Langer, 1978; Schneider and Shiffrin, 1977; Slater and Rouner, 1996). The level of elaboration, ie the level of information processing, may be high for the purchase of a car, a house, a holiday etc, while the level of elaboration and level of information processing may go down gradually in the purchase of a piece of furniture, a computer, house appliances and FMCGs (Fast Moving Consumer Goods). Normally people are not expected to elaborate deeply when buying a snack, a soft drink or a tube of toothpaste. A low involvement purchase is one in which the consumer does not consider the product important to her or his belief system and does not strongly identify with the product. Marketing practitioners try to create involvement by differentiating their brands (Fill, 1999) and equating marketing communications appeals to consumer needs (Assael, 1992). The following factors

influence the level of involvement and the extent of information search in a given purchase decision (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986):

- i) High level of perceived risk
- ii) Low level of product knowledge
- iii) The pressure of limited time to make a decision.
- iv) Relatively high price of the product or service
- v) The extent of differences of the characteristics of the products or services in the market.

Figure 2.5 demonstrates the extent of involvement of the consumer for convenience and shopping products and explains the characteristics of the consumer.



There are two task-related variables on the motivation to elaborate: personal relevance of the message and perceived responsibility for evaluating the recommendation contained in the message. In the first case, personal relevance as a variable would describe a situation where an individual can immediately link the content of the message to their immediate situation, such that where the message is more relevant,

the motivation to elaborate is higher, and the likelihood of attitude change is higher (Heppner *et al.*, 1995; Andrews and Gutkin, 1994; Scott and Ambrosion, 1994). For instance, a person who feels that he or she is overweight and losing some weight would do him or her good, is more likely to elaborate on an advertised slimming programme than someone who does not have the same feelings. On the other hand, the perceived feeling of responsibility is another variable which increases motivation to elaborate (Whiter, and Harkins, 1994). In the case of a mother seeking information for a family holiday, the perceived responsibility would be high, as she would be concerned about her family, the husband and the children, having a good holiday because of her affiliation needs (Bakan, 1966). According to Bakan (1966), affiliation orientation involves concern for other people's feelings, seeking approval from others, creating nurturing relationships with others, and maintaining interpersonal harmony.

After reviewing studies on consumer decision making process, Teare *et al.* (1994) reached a number of conclusions including the following:

- The propensity of consumers with extensive prior experience to engage in high involvement decision making is related to the perceived importance (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985) of a product. For instance, the purchase of a car may be considered as a financially significant purchase for many consumers. It is expected that the more the product or service is important for the consumer the more comprehensive is the information search (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985).
- The propensity of consumers with extensive prior experience to engage in low-involvement decision making is related to product familiarity and personal confidence in product class decision-making ability. For instance, for a computer expert the amount of involvement to buy a new printer would be expected to be lower than a person who has recently started to use computers.
- The propensity of consumers with limited prior experience to engage in high involvement decision making is related to perceived risk (Bauer, 1960), and limited personal confidence in product class decision-making ability.

- The propensity of consumers with limited prior experience to engage in low involvement decision making is related to pre-knowledge of product suitability and low perceptions of risk.

Additional factors which may influence the motivation to elaborate can be mentioned as demographic influences, such as differential processing ability of age groups or gender differences), cultural differences in terms of elaboration effort and more intrinsic characteristics such as predisposition to elaborate messages in general and need for cognition (Clulow, 1999). As mentioned earlier on, in cultures where risk avoidance ie. risk aversion is high, like Turkey, motivation to elaborate may be expected to be high in the purchase of high risk/high importance products and services. On the other hand, the ability to elaborate might be expected to be low due to the level of education of the population in general.

The second set of factors which influence elaboration have been classified as being associated with the ability to elaborate. The distraction and prior knowledge have attracted attention by researchers in this area (Baron *et al.*, 1973; Buller, 1986; Petty and Brock, 1981). Distraction may refer to the other stimulus, such as the noise element in the communication process. However, the research in this area has been inconclusive.

As Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model outlined, the prior experience of the product influences the level of information search. Alba and Hutchinson (1987) proposed *familiarity* and *expertise* as the two major components of product knowledge. They defined familiarity as the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer. On the other hand, expertise is defined as the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully. In other words, increased product familiarity is expected to lead to increased consumer expertise.

Howard and Sheth (1969), Bettman (1979), Punj and Staelin (1983) concluded that pre-purchase search is likely to depend on the consumer's familiarity with the product category as the search behaviour generally begins with the recollection of information held in the memory while the consumer tries to determine whether choice can be

based on prior experience. In a situation where information and experience are insufficient, the consumer is likely to engage in external information search to remove uncertainty and anxiety.

Prior research (Teare *et al.*, 1994; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Petty and Cacioppo, 1986) demonstrated that attitudes towards both risk and ambiguity together are important determinants of choice under uncertainty (Einhorn and Hogarth, 1985; Ghosh and Ray, 1992). For instance, when a consumer feels uncertain about the merits of alternative holiday products and or destinations, it is assumed that the external information search activity will be proportional to the degree of *perceived risk* ie the level of perception of uncertainty and adverse consequences of buying a product or service, decreasing with the increasing level of product knowledge derived from experience (Teare *et al.*, 1994). As most of the travel experience relies on services that are intangible, consumed simultaneously with production and are typically hard to standardise, travellers' perceived risk is likely to be high (Walsh, 1986; Zeithaml, 1981).

After Bauer's (1960) introduction of the concept of "perceived risk" to the marketing literature many contributions have been made by various scholars in the area of perception of risk and its relationship with brand purchase behaviour (Kogan, and Wallach, 1964; Cox, 1967; Markin, 1974). Van Raaj (1978) and later Settle and Alreck (1989) outlined the types of risk consumers may perceive as: *performance risk* - "will the hotel be as nice as it was depicted in the brochure?"; *financial risk*- "can I afford that much or should I go for a three star hotel?"; *physical risk*- "is it safe as the chalets are so far away from the nearest village?"; *social risk* - "will my friends laugh at me or will they be impressed with me for going on a Black Sea tour?"; *Ego risk* - "will I feel as good as I want to feel when I am having my holiday or when I am talking about it?". Stone and Grounhaug (1993) proposed an additional risk factor which is to do with the opportunity cost of time spent using a product or service choice. This risk factor may be particularly relevant for tourism as consumers may need to wait another year for another holiday, if the one they have currently purchased does not produce satisfaction for them. Financial, psychological, satisfaction, and time risks were found to be most frequently associated with pleasure travel (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992).



Cheron and Ritchie (1982) found that perceived risk related to leisure activity is different from that associated with manufactured goods and that its effect diminishes as individuals become more familiar with, or interested in, a particular leisure activity.

### **2.3.4 The Role of Family and Gender in Consumer Decision Making and Marketing Communications**

So far both the traditional and the newer models of marketing communications and decision making have been discussed in order to explore marketing communications as a process. It was observed that both the traditional and newer models of marketing communications and consumer decision making ignored the characteristics of consumers, their roles and reference groups. It needs to be noted that the family as a reference group and gender roles within the family are very influential on a variety of marketing communications decisions ranging from the design of the marketing communications message, its content and to the choice of the media. The importance of the study of family as a reference group and gender roles is particularly significant for this study given the fact that, families supply 80% of domestic holidays in Turkey (TURSAB, 1999).

#### **2.3.4.1 The Role of Family in Consumer Decision Making and Marketing Communications**

Marketing practitioners have always been interested in the family decision making process, ie how family members interact and influence each other when making their purchase choices for the household (Sheth, 1974; Gupta *et al.*, 1983) as purchase decisions by individuals are rarely made in total isolation. The fact that some of the purchase decisions are jointly made has clear implications for the marketing communications practitioner, and points to the importance of studying the family as a decision unit. Assael's (1995) sequential family decision making process (see Figure 2.6) explains the influential roles of family members play in the family decision making process.

Research has shown that members in the family may take on specific social roles and perform different behaviours during the decision making process (Rosen

and Granbois, 1983; Foster and Olshavsky, 1989). Not only do family members influence one another's purchasing decisions, but they are also frequently involved in making joint decisions.

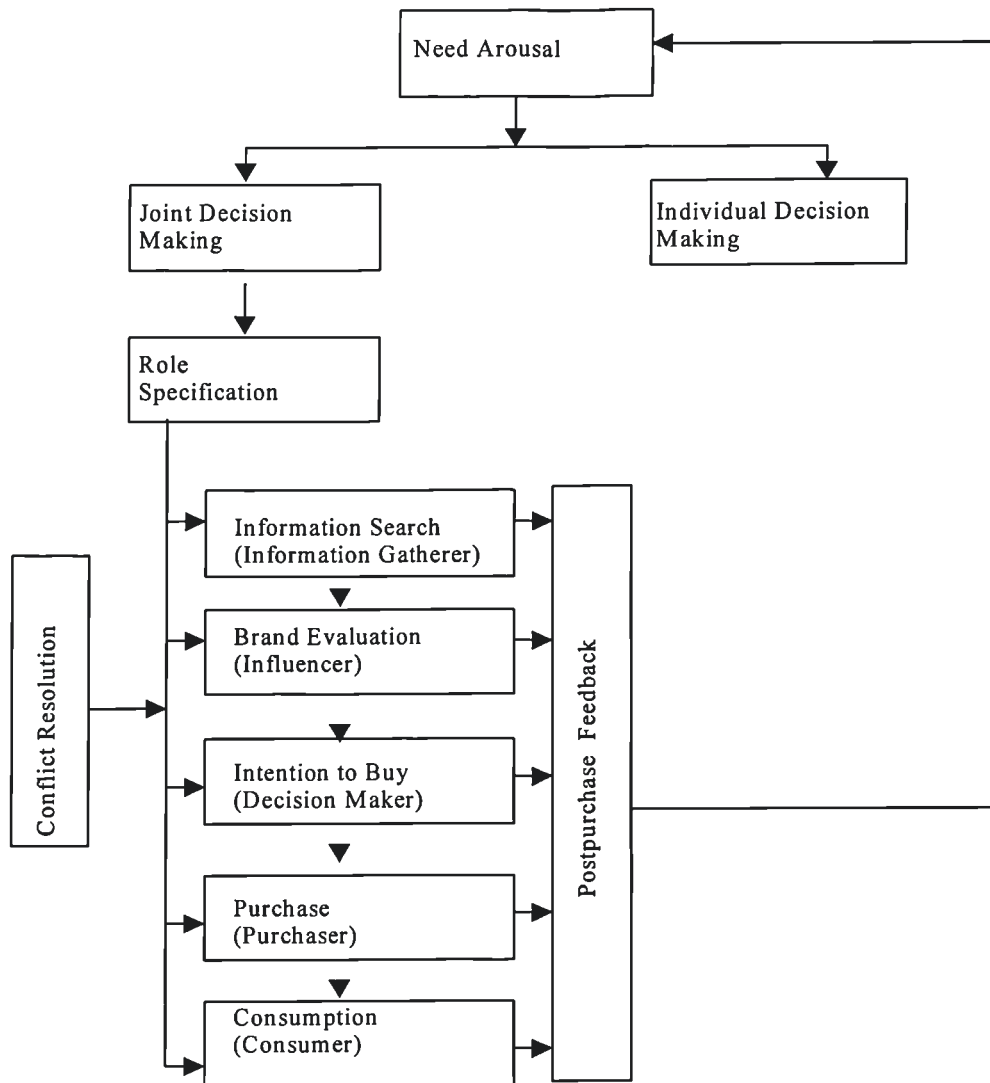


Figure 2.6 Family Decision Making Model. Source: Adapted from Assael, H. (1995) Consumer Behaviour and Marketing Action, South Western College Publishing, Cincinnati, Ohio, p.560.

Sheth (1974) argued that family decision making was different from that of individual decision making due to the following factors:

- The likelihood of joint decisions
- Different role specifications for family members in the process of decision making
- The need to resolve conflicts among family members when making decisions

## 1. Joint Decision Making

Sheth (1974) found that joint decision making was more likely in the following situations:

- a) when the perceived level of risk is high.
- b) when the purchasing decision is important to the family.
- c) when there is little or no time pressure to make a decision.
- d) for certain demographic groups who can be classified as;
  - middle income groups
  - younger families under the age of 24.
  - families with no children
  - if only one of the spouses is working.

## 2. Role Specification

Particular roles played by family members also differentiate family decision making from individual decision making. These roles may include the following:

- *The information gatherer* or the *gatekeeper* influences the family's processing of information by controlling the type of stimuli the family is exposed to.
- The *influencer* is most likely to influence the way in which alternative brands are evaluated.
- The *decision maker* decides which brand to purchase, probably because he or she has budgetary power and, therefore, final approval.
- The *purchasing agent* implements the decision by purchasing the product or service.
- The *consumer* uses the product and evaluates it.

## 3. Conflict Resolution

Blood (1960) argued that joint decisions are likely to lead to conflict, and as families are small and involuntary groups, conflict becomes the norm (Davis, 1976). The

implication of conflict for marketing practitioners is that they need to be ready to appeal to all parties in the family.

The influence of a spouse in the family decision making is likely to vary according to the following (Asael, 1995):

a) Type of product

Putnam and Davidson's (1987) research concluded that family members influenced the purchase of various products. For instance:

- Females dominated the purchase of food, kitchenware and wife's clothing.
- Males dominated the purchase of sports equipment and hardware.
- Holidays, TV sets, refrigerators, cars and furniture involved joint decision-making.

There are implications of Putnam and Davidson's (1987) study for marketing communications practitioners. If a product or service is in the husband-, or wife-dominant category, the marketing communications practitioners must tailor their messages to one spouse or the other, and must select media that enable communication with one spouse or the other effectively. If the product or service is in the joint decision category, marketing communications practitioners must tailor their messages for the couple and must use media that are likely to reach both spouses.

b) The stage in decision making. In other words, while one spouse may initiate the process another may dominate the information gathering.

c) The nature of the purchase

The nature of the purchase may be influential on husband-wife roles (Berelson and Steiner, 1964). For instance, while one spouse may be associated with *instrumental* roles related to performing tasks that help the group make the final purchasing decision, another spouse may be associated with expressive roles

which are related to facilitating expression of group norms and provide the group norms with social and emotional support. However, these traditional roles are changing and several studies found that working wives are less likely to accept traditional home making tasks associated with expressive role (Kenkel, 1961).

#### d) Family characteristics

Even though wives and husbands dominate decisions for certain products or service categories, the degree of dominance may vary in each family. In some families, the husband may be more dominant, regardless of the product or service considered (patriarchal families); in others, the wife may be more dominant (matriarchal families). Various studies show that a husband will generally be more influential in the purchase decision than his wife when (Rigaux-Bricmont, 1978):

- His level of education is higher
- His income and occupational status are higher.
- His wife is not employed.
- The couple are at an early stage in the life cycle (young parents).
- The couple has a greater than average number of children.

Apart from wives and husbands, the role of children in the family decision- making process also need to be analysed by marketing practitioners. Depending on the type of product or service together with the family characteristics children may play one of the roles described above, ranging from information gatherer to consumer (Peter and Olson, 1996). For instance, Carlson and Grossberg's (1988) study identified four types of families influencing the role of children in the family decision making process as follows:

- i) *Authoritarian parents* attempt to have a high degree of control over their children and expect unquestioned obedience. In families where parents are authoritarian, the involvement of children in the family decision making process is expected to be limited.

- ii) *Neglecting parents* are distant from their children and they do not exert much control over them.
- iii) *Democratic parents* seek to create an atmosphere where both parents' and children's rights are balanced. In families where parents are democratic, children's self-expression and hence their involvement in family decision making is encouraged.
- iv) *Permissive parents* attempt to eliminate as many restraints as possible without endangering them. Permissive parents believe that children have adult rights but few responsibilities.

Based on Carlson and Grossberg's (1988) above classification of parents, in Turkey, where parents are classified as authoritarian (Dokmen, 1998) a low level of children's involvement in the family decision making may be expected. The implications of the classification of parents in the purchase decision of domestic holidays in Turkey are discussed in chapter 6 of this thesis.

#### **2.3.4.2 The Role of Gender in Consumer Decision Making and Marketing Communications**

The role of females in the family holiday decision making has been noted by many researchers like Consenza and Davis (1981); Nichols and Snepenger (1988); Fodness (1992); Harrison (1992); and Zalatan (1998a) identified that wives were more likely than husbands to conduct the pre-vacation information search in family holidays and suggested that marketing communications messages aimed at families should take into account the role of women in family holidays.

Over the past few decades "scientific studies have attempted to delineate the fundamental similarities and differences between the two sexes" (Deaux and Kite, 1987) and developed a gender perspective which views gender as produced in everyday activities (West and Zimmerman, 1987; and Ferre 1990). The gender perspective rather than describing gender as an individual property of biology, it

focuses on the interactions between genders and similarities and differences of attitudes, and behaviour between males and females (West and Zimmerman, 1987).

For marketing communicators, the study of gender and gender related behaviour is important and gender has historically been used as a basis for market segmentation. For instance, Holbrook (1986) saw gender as a key variable in moderating consumer's evaluative judgements. Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991) and later Darley *et al.* (1995) attempted to explain the use of gender in marketing segmentation based on the following:

- 1      Gender is easily identifiable.
- 2      Gender segments are accessible.
- 3      Gender segments are large enough to be profitable, ie each segment on average consisting about 50% of population.

Empirical studies, which are explained below, demonstrated significant gender differences across a variety of tasks and traits. For example, males/men often excel in speed and co-ordination of bodily movements, spatial orientation and other spatial aptitudes, mechanical comprehension and arithmetic reasoning while females/women tend to be superior to males in terms of manual dexterity, perceptual speed and accuracy, memory, verbal fluency and other tasks involving the mechanics of language (Burstein *et al.*, 1980; Deaux and Kite, 1987. Meyers-Levy (1989) and Bakan (1966) suggested that in terms of intellectual capability, females tend to do well in verbal parts, communication, speech, and literature. On the other hand, males tend to do well in quantitative aspects of learning skills.

In addition to the above, Rosenthal and DePaulo (1979) concluded that women are more accurate than men in decoding non-verbal cues, eg the body language. Holbrook (1986) pointed out that, compared to males, females were more visually oriented, more intrinsically motivated, and more romantic.

Meyers-Levy (1989, 1994) mentioned the versatility of the application of Bakan's (1966) agentic-communal dichotomy concept to explore male-female differences in information processing. Meyers-Levy (1989 and 1994) concluded that males, in fulfilment of their agentic roles (eg, achievement orientation), tended to process information selectively, while females, in fulfilment of their communal (eg affiliation orientation) tended to process information comprehensively. In other words, in the fulfilment of their affiliation-oriented role, women tend to process information comprehensively.

Based on the previous research presented above, Darley *et al.* (1995) concluded that the most important aspect of gender may be differences in how females and males process marketing communications information. They mentioned the fact that considerable amount of evidence suggests women and men respond differently to objective versus subjective marketing communications claims. According to Holbrook (1978), an objective, ie a factual claim is the one that exhibits "logical, objectively verifiable descriptions of tangible product/ [service] features". Darley and Smith (1993) interprets Holbrook's (1978) definition as implying that there are two dimensions that cause a marketing communications claim to be objective.

First, a claim's objectivity is related to the extent to which it associates the brand with a tangible product [/service] feature (ie physical attributes that can be directly perceived through visual inspection or the sense of touch) (Edell and Staelin, 1983; Holbrook 1978). Examples would include: "This hi-fi set has two tape cassette compartments which allow recording from one tape cassette to another tape cassette," or " This camera has autofocus feature".

Second, a claim's objectivity is related to the extent it includes specific factual information to substantiate the brand-attribute association. Atkin (1979) and Darley and Smith (1993) explains a factual claim as the one which includes specific data which can be measured by a standard scale not subject to individual interpretation. Though their verifiability is difficult before making the actual purchase and consumption in the tourism and hospitality services, examples would include: "this hotel is two hundred yards away from the beach", or " the hotel has 50 en-suite rooms".



Marketing communicators may also resort to subjective claims to persuade the target group. Holbrook (1978) explains subjective claims as conveying “emotional, subjective impressions of intangible aspects of a product /service”. Therefore, as the intangibility suggests subjective claims are non-physical features of a product or service that cannot be directly perceived as they have no physical reality (Edell and Staelin, 1983; Holbrook, 1978). Examples of subjective claims may include “prestige of ownership,” (Darley and Smith, 1993) “beautiful design”, or “an excellent view of the Princess Islands”. The use of impressionistic descriptions would also render a claim as subjective. For instance “an incredibly low price for two nights’ accommodation”, or “an extravagant welcome party.”

It appears from the above discussion that there is sufficient research stating that males are analytical and logical in their information processing, while females are characterised as more subjective and intuitive (Broverman *et al.*, 1968). Poole (1977) identified that males conceptualise items in terms of physical attributes whereas females use more evaluative concepts. Likewise, Haas (1979) mentioned that females’ language reflects an interpretive mode that is subjective and evaluative, while males’ language reflect a selective concentration on readily available, objective states. In the area of language of females, Entwistle and Garvey (1982) found out that women tend to use more adjectives than males and they engage in more creative, associative, imagery-laced interpretation (Wood, 1966). Silverman (1970) explains that the differences come from having different attentional styles. Darley and Smith (1995) based on earlier research and their own concluded that “males would respond more favourably to objective marketing communications claims and females would respond more favourably to subjective marketing communications claims. However, Darley and Smith’s (1995) research found that as women are more comprehensive information processors, they would consider both objective and subjective claims of marketing communications. Females’ tendency to elaborate on a message increases with the level of incongruity of a message. The use of objective claims increases with the perceived risk related to a product or service decision.

Meyers-Levy’s (1989) *information selectivity model* which was developed later by

Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran (1991) and Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991) is also supportive of the above discussion in terms of the gender differences from an information processing perspective. The model proposed that males often are selective in their information processing and often do not engage in comprehensive processing of all available information as a basis for judgement.

Males tend to develop *heuristic* devices, ie procedures or methods or strategy for solving a problem or making a decision (Statt, 1997), based on a single cue or cues that convergently imply a single inference to substitute detailed information processing. As a consequence, males prefer processing strategies based on highly available and apparent cues. A *heuristic* is simply a procedure or method or strategy for solving a problem or making a decision (Statt, 1997). It is similar to an *algorithm*, a procedure widely used in science, except that an algorithm is guaranteed to find the solution, or the best solution, whereas a heuristic is not. Therefore, a heuristic may be thought of as a *rule-of-thumb*. Heuristic can be explained as the *halo effect* (*halo error*) theory, which was first described in the psychology literature by Thorndike (1920). Halo effect refers to the factors which tend to encourage raters (in this case the audience) to rely on global impressions when evaluating a product or brand based on the information provided by the marketing communicator.

The most heavily evidenced heuristic devices can be cited as *credibility*, *liking* and *consensus* (Chaiken 1987; Cialdini 1987). *Credibility* can be explained as the extent to which the receiver gives weight to the credibility of the communicator on the basis that the receiver can trust the message and avoid the need for further elaboration (Andrews and Gutkin, 1994; Zatos *et al.*, 1992). Rhine and Severance (1970) pointed out that as the receiver's elaboration in a particular message or issue increases, the effects of communicator credibility diminish. Consequently, credibility has a higher impact upon persuasive outcome when elaboration likelihood is low.

On the other hand, as another heuristic device, *liking* refers to the extent to which the receiver likes the communicator and the message. This liking may be based, for instance, on the attraction of the communicator and the reasonableness of the communicator. Gabbot and Clulow (1999) argued that in instances where the

likelihood of elaboration is low, the liked sources and messages would prove to be more persuasive.

*Consensus* and compliance is related to the belief that individuals will be more likely to be persuaded if those around them express favourable responses to the message (Gabbot, and Clulow, 1999).

In contrast to males, females use a comprehensive strategy and try to make use of all available cues rather than only the salient ones available. Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran (1991) found that females exhibit a greater sensitivity to the particulars of relevant information when forming judgements. These findings could be interpreted as females may encode more marketing communications claims than males, and may elaborate marketing communications claims more extensively. Females' ability to process more information, and in more detail, can be attributed to situational factors as well, where females as housewives tend to have more time to devote to processing information (Nazik, 1999). In addition, as females are more affiliation oriented (Bakan, 1966), they care more for the well being of the group eg, family, and they engage themselves in more extensive information processing.

#### **2.4.0 Marketing Communications and the Internet**

So far theories and models developed by a variety of researchers to explain the marketing communications process have been discussed in conjunction with major influences in the decision making and marketing communications process such as family and gender roles.

However, a research study on marketing communications such as this one needs to analyse and discuss the role of significant recent developments such as the Internet. Hamill and Kitchen (1999), Hoffman and Novak (1996), Quelch and Klein (1996), Hamill (1997) and Hamill and Gregory (1997) argue that new marketing communications paradigms may have to be developed as many of the fundamental tenets on which most marketing and marketing communications research and teaching is based are called into question by the growing popularity of the Internet.

Some of the trends related to the Internet and information technology (IT), and their impact on marketing can be outlined as follows (Hamill and Kitchen, 1999):

- New, customer-driven approaches to product development incorporating IT.
- Innovative approaches to market segmentation and the move towards ‘one-to-one’ marketing.
- New approaches to marketing communications, promotion and advertising.
- The growing importance of electronic trade, especially in business-to-business marketing.
- Levelling of the corporate ‘playing field’ and the more rapid internationalisation of small- and medium-sized enterprises made possible through effective Internet marketing.
- New developments in market research and marketing information systems using electronic communications, data mining techniques and the Web.
- The changing role of marketing intermediaries, with IT facilitating direct buyer/seller relationships.
- Changing power relationships between the customer and supplier; innovative ‘digital’ approaches to consumer service and support.
- The impact of IT on market structure, conduct and performance.

These above trends suggest that business firms wishing to establish competitive advantage through the use of the the Internet will need to adopt a new approach to their marketing mix strategies, ie product price, distribution (place) and marketing communications (promotion). The term *cybermarketing* has been coined to describe this new approach to marketing through the use of computers and telecommunications (Keeler, 1995).

Table 2.1 shows the phenomenal growth of the Internet both in terms of the number of users and the size of electronic commerce or the Internet trade.

	1995	1998	2000*
Number of PCs with acces to the Internet	14,2 millio	120,4 million	394,8 million
Number of the Internet users	13,9 millio	97,3 million	170 million
Number of people who shop on the Internet	2,99 millio	27,7 million	59,4 million
Electronic commerce revenues (\$)	296 million	32,4 billion	133 billion

\* Forecast

Table 2.1 The Growth of the Internet in the World

Source: Ekonmist (1999) *Ekonomist Yıllığı – Türkiye 2000*, p.63

The growth of the Internet as a marketing communications medium has been impressive too over the past few years. For instance, the total Internet advertising spending in the world increased from \$ 37 million in 1995 to \$ 276 million in 1996 (DUNYA, 2000). It is estimated that total Internet advertising spending in the world will reach \$ 15 billion in 2003 (DUNYA, 2000).

According to Keeler (1995) the popularity of the Internet is attributable to its potential advantages which enable business firms to:

- *save money and help stretch their marketing budgets.*
- *save time and cut steps in the marketing process.*
- *give customers another way to buy while enabling customers to take control of the purchasing process.*
- *offer information which is rich and interactive.*

Company reports marketing messages and large amounts of information with visual presentation aids can be posted on an Internet Web site, and the content of information can be changed quickly. The Internet enables a two-way communication between firms and potential customers, through electronic mail (e-mail) and its other applications such as usenet/newsgroups.

- *offer instant international reach continuously for 24-hours-a-day.*

- *offer equal opportunity access by lowering barriers to entry into a market.*

Kierzkowski *et al.* (2000) suggested a new model of marketing communications for business firms in order to benefit from the potential advantages of the Internet mentioned above. Although Kierzkowski *et al.* 's (2000) model structurally resembles to the linear models of marketing communications discussed in 2.3.3.1, its fundamental principles are very much different from those applied in conventional mass marketing communications mediums as follows:

- Attract users
- Engage users' interest and participation.
- Retain users and ensure they return to an application.
- Learn about their preferences.
- Relate back to them to provide customised interactions.

#### **Attract**

Unlike direct and traditional mass marketing, where the interaction is more or less imposed on the consumer, the Internet marketing requires consumers to voluntarily visit an Internet Web site. The potential audience may be large but the customer has to search out the company's Web site in order to view the marketing communications messages. As more and more companies begin to advertise on the Internet, the problem of standing out amid all the clutter will pose major challenges to business firms (O'Connor and Galvin, 1997). Molenaar (1996) summarises this feature of the Internet as follows:

"On the Web, marketing is not about selling – but about buying. It is the customer who decides ..."

Additionally, marketing managers need to be aware that a large proportion of their target audience may not have access to the Internet.

#### **Engage**

Having attracted users to an Internet Web site, it is crucial that marketing practitioners

engage users' interest and participation to achieve an interaction or a transaction. Web sites are often created by IT specialists who may not have the necessary knowledge and skills about the consumers' requirements.

As stated by Sterne (1995), due to navigation problems, it is very easy for the target audience to get lost, frustrated and eventually leave the Web site. Pringle (1998) argued that what consumers want from an Internet site is completeness not exclusivity. Therefore, the expectations of target consumers need to be well assessed by marketing practitioners.

### **Retain**

Maintaining ongoing contact with the target audience is essential to developing relationships with the target audience. Arat (1998) mentioned that, in Turkey, businesses are increasingly establishing company Web sites, mainly for prestige reasons without really being aware of their consequences. He warned that if these Web sites are not regularly updated and maintained well, the Internet may have eventually a negative influence on the reputation of these business firms.

This researcher's experience is supportive of Arat's (1998) as he has experienced that in majority of the cases, he has been unable to get prompt responses, if any, to his e-mail queries through the Web sites of various business firms, including travel agencies.

### **Learn**

The Internet offers opportunities for marketing practitioners to learn about consumer demographics, attitudes and behaviour. The Internet and e-mail allow customer information to be collected, classified and retrieved more easily.

### **Relate**

Based on the information collected about the demographic characteristics, the attitudes and behaviour of the users, marketing practitioners can customise the

interaction and tailor either the product/service, or the marketing effort to one customer at a time.

### **2.5.0 Marketing Communications in Turkey**

So far various theories and models developed by international researchers on the marketing communications process, consumer decision-making and the Internet have been discussed. In order to be able to discuss the relevance and the transferability of these theories and models (See chapter 6), a review of marketing communications practice in Turkey is presented.

#### **History of Marketing Communications in Turkey**

The appearance of the first advertisements as a marketing communications practice in Turkey dates back only to the 19<sup>th</sup> century late Ottoman period. The first advertisements were placed in the daily newspaper of Tercuman-ı Ahval in 1864 in the form of classified advertisements by individuals to sell their houses and various other individual properties (Unsal, 1984). Compared with the first press advertisements of Germany in the 16<sup>th</sup> century and in England in the 17<sup>th</sup> century (Unsal, 1994), the arrival of press advertising in Turkey appears to be about 200-300 years later than these European countries. Kologlu (1999) attributes this late arrival of advertisements in Turkey to two reasons, both of which are related to the religion of Islam:

- i) The printing machine arrived in the Ottoman Empire about 300 years after its first invention in 1450 by Johannes Gutenberg in Germany (Unsal, 1984). The arrival of the printing machine was delayed due to the belief that it was an “an invention of the Satan” and even touching it was a great sin, yet alone using.
- ii) Due to the strong Islamic religious beliefs prevalent within the Ottoman Empire in those days, the building of wealth through trade was not an honourable thing and most of the Turkish people earned their living from farming and engaging in official jobs within the empire. Additionally, both



being a collectivist and Islamic society, self-praising was neither acceptable nor approved of by people within the Ottoman Empire (Kologlu, 1999).

Up to the 1960s there were piecemeal developments in Turkey from the viewpoint of trade in general and marketing communications and press advertisements in particular. Although the influence of Islam was lessened in the society after the abolition of the Caliphate in 1924 and the acceptance of laicism in 1928<sup>9</sup>, the overwhelming influence of the state both in trade and industry and in the press largely remained.

In 1957, with a decree of the Cabinet, the Official Press Advertisement company was formed to be fully responsible for the publishing of advertisements in newspapers and journals and took away the freedom of the publishing of advertisements from the individual citizens and private establishments (Unsal, 1984). However, in 1961 a law passed by the parliament abolished the decree of 1957 and the freedom for publishing advertisements was re-established to a certain extent, within the limits of censorship. Later, the first radio commercials started in 1961 and they were followed by the television commercials in 1972 in the official television of Turkish Broadcasting Corporation (TRT).

#### **The Development of Communications Channels**

The significant developments in the Turkish advertising industry started with the economic liberalisation programme at the beginning of 1980s (Tek, 1999), and the opening of the private radio and television channels at the beginning of 1990s (Soylemez, 1998)<sup>10</sup>. After the liberalisation programme at the beginning of 1980s many Turkish enterprises including the advertising agencies opened up themselves to the rest of the world. Many of the larger advertising agencies formed partnerships with international advertising agencies. Table 2.2 lists the Turkish Advertising Association's member advertising agencies and their international partners.

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<sup>9</sup> Büyük Larousse (1996) Vol.14. pp.7328, İstanbul: Interpress Basın ve Yayıncılık.

<sup>10</sup> In 1999, the number of radio channels in Turkey reached 600, and the number of TV channels reached 227. Source: Dünya, Cumhuriyetin 75. Yılında Türkiye Ekonomisi-2000, <http://www.dunya.com/cumhuriyet/radyotv/index.html>

<b>Turkish Advertising Agency</b>	<b>International Partner</b>
ADMAR Reklam ve Pazarlama Hizmetleri A.Ş.	Independent Network of Advertising Agencies
ALICE/BBDO Reklamcılık ve İletişim Hizmetleri	BBDO
BİRİKİM/FCA Reklamcılık Danışmanlık ve Ticaret A.Ş.	FCA
POYRAZ/BOZELL Reklamcılık ve Ticaret A.Ş.	BOZELL Worldwide
CENAJANS/GREY Reklamcılık Hizmetleri A.Ş.	GREY
KLAN/EURO RSCG İletişim Hizmetleri A.Ş.	EURO RSCG
GÜZEL SANATLAR/SAATCHI&SAATCHI	SAATCHI & SAATCHI
INITIATIVE MEDIA	INITIATIVE MEDIA
İLANCILIK REKLAM AJANSI A.Ş.	TAAN (Transworld Advertising Agency Network Group)
ADAM/LOWE Tanıtım Hizmetleri A.Ş.	The Lowe International
MANAJANS/THOMPSON Reklam İşleri A.Ş.	J. Walter Thompson
MARKOM/LEO BURNETT Reklam Hizmetleri A.Ş.	LEO BURNETT
MEDINA TURGUL/DDB Reklam Hizmetleri A.Ş.	DDB Needham
MORAN/OGILVY&MATHER Reklamcılık A.Ş.	Ogilvy & Mather
MOVIDA/PLUS MAP Reklam ve Tanıtım A.Ş.	MAP International
PARS/McCANN-ERICKSON Reklamcılık A.Ş.	McCann-Erickson Worldwide
PENAJANS/D'ARCY Ticaret A.Ş.	D'arcy Masius Benton and Bowles
ROTA Reklamcılık ve Ticaret A.Ş.	True North/FCB Ayer
RPM/RADAR Reklam Pazarlama A.Ş.	Dentsu Europe
İSTANBUL/TBWA Reklam Hizmetleri A.Ş.	TBWA

Table 2.2 Turkish Advertising Agencies and their International Partners Source: Turkish Advertising Association, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar96.html>, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar97.html>, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar98.html>, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar99.html>

### Current Expenditures on Marketing Communications

Apart from the developments in traditional marketing communications mediums such as the press and TV, the growth of the Internet as a marketing communications medium and method has been promising in Turkey. Although the size of the Internet advertising was only \$ 1 million in 1999, the increase in the numbers of users from 293,000 in 1998 to 580,000 in 1999 (EKONOMIST, 2000), almost 98% increase in a year, indicates that the Internet can become a significant marketing communications medium in the future.

With the developments taking place in marketing communications, the proportion of advertising expenditures as a percentage of the GNP increased from 0.27% in 1981 to 0.49% in 1996 and 0.60% in 1999 (See Table 2.3). However, these figures are still much lower than that of the figures, for instance, of the UK, which was 1.09%, the USA, which was 1.25%, and the European average, which was 0.87% in 1996 (ZENITH MEDIA, 1997). Additionally, per capita advertising expenditure of \$4 in 1996 Turkey was much lower in 1996 than that of the European average of \$61 (ZENITH MEDIA, 1997).

Table 2.3 also shows that the growth of the advertising spending has been somewhat erratic between 1996 and 1999. However, this was mainly caused by the economic recession which started as a result of the 1997 South Asian economic crisis.

Years	Advertising Expenditures as a percentage of GNP
1996	0.49
1997	0.65
1998	0.60
1999	0.60

Table 2.3 Advertising Expenditures as a Percentage of the GNP in Turkey. Source: Turkish Advertising Association, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar96..html>, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar97..html> <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar98..html>, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar99..html>

The advertising expenditure figures appear to be extremely low in Turkey, compared with the average advertising spending in European countries. Furthermore, Vardar (1995) and Soylemez (1998) argued that the actual advertising expenditure figures in Turkey were much lower than those above, as the figures provided above were inflated and did not show the true advertising figures. This means that the advertising expenditures as a percentage of the GNP are lower than 0.60%, the 1999 figure mentioned above. Vardar (1995) and Soylemez (1998) put forward the following reasons to explain the difference between the actual advertising expenditure figures and the figures provided by the Turkish Advertising Association (Table 2.3):

- Press and TV advertising is calculated from the standard price lists. However, in the absence of existing annual contracts, special price deals are negotiated.
- Often magazines' own advertising appears in newspapers belonging to the same media group. These advertisements are also included in advertising spending calculations. Similarly, TV channels advertise other sister companies' advertisements either free of charge or on nominal fee basis. For instance, Dogan Media Group owns more than ten national newspapers, a TV channel, and a number of journals and magazines. The group also has activities in other sectors outside media, ranging from banking and insurance to automotive (Soylemez, 1998).

However, it should be noted that the problems in calculating the net advertising expenditure figures may be encountered in other countries too, where media companies are part of larger holdings or groups of companies which have investments in other industries and sectors.

Based on the fact that the advertising industry in Turkey developed only very recently and the advertising expenditures are relatively low, it may be suggested that the advertising industry in Turkey is at its *infancy* (Soylemez, 1998). To support this view, a general lack of awareness in Turkey on advertising and marketing communications in practice can be added (Kaynak and Ghauri, 1986). Kaynak and Ghauri (1986) concluded that the Turkish word for advertising which is *reklam* corresponds to a more traditional vision of advertising, where *persuasion* (as in the case of the linear models of marketing communications) and *slogans* are the key issues. Kaynak and Ghauri (1986) and Soylemez (1998) attribute the slow development of marketing communications and the advertising practice in Turkey to the level of literacy in the society. For instance, although the literacy rate in Turkey increased relatively faster after the 1980s, in 1990 the literacy rate was still only 80.5%. However, this figure may still misrepresent the level of literacy, as about 24% of the literates consisted of people who were just literates, with no previous formal schooling (TURKISH STATE INSTITUTE OF STATISTICS, 2000).

Therefore, based on the discussion so far, the slow development of advertising and marketing communications in Turkey, to a large extent, can be attributed to:

- a) historical reasons based on religious beliefs;
- b) the low level of literacy in the country during the past few decades;
- c) national, economic and political policies which supported self sufficiency up to 1980s, and hence led to a closed economy.

The total advertising spending figures by medium in Turkey (See Table 2.4) is somewhat contradictory and supports the view that awareness about marketing communications in Turkey is low. In Turkey, although the literacy rate and the

number of newspapers read by per thousand people is relatively low<sup>11</sup>, the use of press advertisements, in relation to television advertisements, appear to be rather high in proportional terms (ranging from 27.3 to 31%) (See Table 2.4). Given the fact that 93% of Turkish households own television sets, and Turkish people, with an average daily television viewing of 3.36 hours (UNESCO 1997), watch television more than any other nation but North Americans (3.59 hours), television, as a marketing communications medium, appears to be underutilised.

Soylemez (1997) argued that the main reasons for the high level of television viewing in Turkey, compared with print media, are based on the fact that television viewing is free and the viewers do not need to be literate for television viewing.

In table 2.5, advertising expenditures in a number of European countries in terms of the advertisement medium used are presented. This table demonstrates that there is a logical relationship between the number of newspapers read by per thousand people in a country and the use of advertising medium. For instance, in countries where newspaper readership is low, such as Portugal, Greece and Italy, press (print) advertising is used proportionally less than television advertising. On the other hand, in countries where newspaper readership is high such as the UK, Switzerland, Germany, Ireland and Austria, press (print) advertising is used proportionally more than television advertising.

Years	Advertising Spending \$ (millions)	Advertising Spending by Medium (%)					
		TV	Radio	Press	Open Air	Sinema	Other
1996	900	40,4	3	27,3	1,6	2,3	25,4
1997	1250	31	4	30	5	5	25
1998	1230	31	4,5	33	5,5	1	25
1999	1200	32	5	31	6	1	25

Table 2.4 Annual Advertising Expenditure by Medium in Turkey

Source: Turkish Advertising Association, <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar96..html>,  
<http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar97..html> <http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar98..html>,  
<http://www.rd.org.tr/hracamalar99..html>

<sup>11</sup> In Turkey, the number of newspaper advertisements read by per thousand people is 74. This number is 576 for Japan, 531 for the UK and 333 for Germany (UNESCO, 1996).

	TV	Print	Radio	Cinema	Outdoor	TV Ownership	Newspaper Readership
Countries	%	%	%	%	%	%	Per Thousand People
Austria	24,6	55,4	13,0	0,5	6,5	99	318
Germany	18,8	73,0	3,6	1,0	3,6	99	333
Greece	71,1	22,6	4,6	0,0	1,6	98	129
Ireland	31,1	52,1	10,5	0,7	5,6	98	374
Italy	53,4	39,5	3,6	0,3	3,2	99	189
Portugal	43,9	28,8	6,6	10,9	9,8	90	56
Switzerland	8,9	77,5	2,2	0,1	11,3	98	311
United Kingdom	32,6	60,1	2,9	0,6	3,8	92	531

Table 2.5 Advertising Spending by Medium (%) in Selected European

Countries- 1995 Source: Adapted from Euromonitor, Marketing Data and Statistics, 1997, Illinois, pp.128,313, 316 and 322.

When tables 2.4 and 2.5 are put together, it appears that there is a contradiction in terms of the use of advertising medium in Turkey. In Turkey, where both the rate of literacy and the newspaper readership is low, and television viewing per person is high, one would expect the use of television as an advertising medium, in relation to press (print) advertising, to be a lot higher than it is now.

Furthermore, industry experts and analysts in Turkey estimate that the use of press (print) advertising will keep increasing in proportional terms, due to rising concerns about the measurement of impact of television advertisements in the country (Belviranlı, 1998). It would clearly be of value to further investigate this discrepancy, and to look at how control, evaluation and measurement procedures could be improved to add confidence to the efficacy of television advertising.

## 2.6.0 Conclusion

In this chapter marketing communications and consumer decision-making theories and models related to the key questions of this research have been discussed, together with a brief background to the marketing communications activities in Turkey. In particular, it focused on the concepts of communication and marketing communications, and delineated methods, models, theories and processes relevant to a better understanding of the topic. Reference was also made to the role of the family and gender in consumer decision making. Based on the discussion presented in the chapter, it may be suggested that advertising, which is the main method of marketing communications in Turkey<sup>12</sup>, is at its infancy in Turkey and that there is a lack of

<sup>12</sup> See 2.3.0 for the main characteristics of advertising which resulted a substantial interest to be shown internationally in advertising as a marketing communications method. These characteristics of advertising are also relevant for Turkey.

awareness about advertising and marketing communications in practice. The current nature of marketing communications practice may be reflected in the marketing communications activities of business firms in general, including tourism firms such as travel agencies and hotels, which will be discussed in chapter 6 of this thesis.

## **Chapter 3: The Context of the Research – Tourism and Marketing**

### **3.0.0 Overview**

#### **3.1.0 Tourism as a Concept**

#### **3.2.0 The Development of Tourism**

##### **3.2.1 An Increase in Leisure Time and Disposable Income**

##### **3.2.2 Technological Developments in Transportation and Telecommunications**

##### **3.2.3 Urbanisation and the Increase in Population**

##### **3.2.4 An Increase in the Level of Education and Cultural Activity**

##### **3.2.5 The Introduction of Social Security Systems**

#### **3.3.0 The Structure of the Tourism Market**

##### **3.3.1 Travel Organisers**

##### **3.3.2 Accommodation Providers**

##### **3.3.3 Transportation providers**

##### **3.3.4 Attractions Sector**

##### **3.3.5 Destination organisers**

#### **3.4.0 Characteristics of Tourism as a Service Offer**

#### **3.5.0 Decision Making and the Motives for Travel**

#### **3.6.0 Conclusions**

*Tourism is one of the largest industries in the world, both in terms of employment created and revenues generated. According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the size of the tourism industry reached \$444.7 billion in 1998, almost 12% of all world trade volume (WTO, 1999). In the same year the number of people working directly or indirectly in this industry reached 250 million, ie one in every nine workers in the world. Tourism also represents 11% of all world consumer spending. WTO forecasts show a positive growth trend for the tourism industry in the new millennium. It is estimated that the tourism industry will grow to be as large as \$2 trillion in 2020, with 1.6 billion people engaging in tourism and travel activities (WTO, 1997).*

*The significance of tourism for any country is not limited to the revenues generated and employment created within this industry alone. Industrial sectors within a country are interdependent. This means that, in addition to purchasing primary inputs such as labour, goods and services, those sectors that initially receive the tourist expenditure will also purchase intermediate goods and services produced by other*



*industries within the economy. Thus, any change in the level of tourist expenditure will not only affect the sector that produces that good or service, but also that sector's suppliers and the suppliers of suppliers and so on (Fletcher, 1995). This effect, known as the multiplier effect, can be seen as an influence of tourist expenditure on tourism and other associated sectors.*

*This chapter is intended to provide a theoretical and contextual framework for Turkish tourism, examining tourism as an activity and as a market. It explores and discusses the theories and models with reference to the work of international researchers in tourism which are relevant to the full understanding of the key questions of this research.*

### **3.1.0 Tourism as a Concept**

The word tourism comes from the Latin word *turnare*, which means to turn, to roll, to change direction and to make something inside out (Coruh, 1985). From the viewpoint of tourism as an industry, ie from the supply side, tourism can be defined as:

“the aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods and services to facilitate business, pleasure and leisure activities away from the home environment”

(Smith, 1988)

On the other hand, from the viewpoint of demand, ie as a touristic activity, tourism can be defined as “comprising of the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (McIntosh *et al.*, 1995).

According to Burkart and Medlik (1981) there are three generic types of tourism activities in which tourists engage;

- **Inbound Tourism**

International visitors travelling to a country who are residents of other countries.  
For instance, the tourism activity of British tourists visiting Turkey.

- Outbound Tourism

Residents of a country, travelling as visitors to other countries. For instance, the tourism activity of the Turkish citizens visiting the United Kingdom (UK).

- Domestic Tourism

Residents of a country visiting destinations within their own country's boundaries. For instance, the tourism activity of the residents of Turkey visiting places within Turkey.

When tourism activity is analysed from the viewpoint of purpose, following categories may emerge (Seaton, 1996):

- i) Business – Attending meetings, consultations, conferences, etc.
- ii) Visiting Relatives and Friends
- iii) Recreational – Pleasure (eg sun and sea); Sports (eg golfing and hunting); Cultural (eg visiting historical places); Health (eg visiting thermal resorts); Nature (eg visiting natural attractions).

### **3.2.0 The Development of Tourism**

Gilbert (1991) points out that, although people have always travelled, it was historically a life event, a pilgrimage, a grand tour or a health cure visit that motivated the individual to leave her/his home and experience another environment. However, the modern tourist's cultural or personal expectations of travel are far removed from the historical perspective in terms of both *ability* and *mobility*, as well as ultimately her/his *motivation* for travel (Murphy, 1985; Gilbert, 1991).

The earlier activities of moving from one place to another were based on satisfying physical needs such as food and water (Eralp, 1983). Earlier tourism activities in the

world date back to the Phoenicians, who were involved in trade and founded city-states in such places as Utica and Carthage on the Mediterranean, in North Africa, and Tyre and Sidon in what is now Lebanon (Lundberg and Lundberg, 1993). It is known that Romans and Greeks travelled for pleasure, sports, health and trade. At around 500 BC, the Greeks established city-states as far as the west of Italy and travelled between them. In 334 BC some 700 000 tourists visited Ephesus in a single season to be entertained by acrobats, animal acts, jugglers and magicians (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1990). With the start of the first Olympic Games around 700 BC, many people visited Olympia to watch the Olympic Games (Tunc and Sac, 1988).

After the collapse of the Roman Empire in 476 AD, travelling activities declined, and the purposes for travel changed from pleasure, sports, health and trade to visiting holy places like Jerusalem, Mecca and Medina (Kozak *et al.*, 1996).

The Italian traveller Marco Polo travelled to the East and visited places such as Iran and Afghanistan before arriving in China. He collected his travel experiences in a book called 'The Description of the World', later called *Il Millione* (millionaire), which is now considered as one of the first examples of a travelogue (Icoz, 1996).

Until the Industrial Revolution in England in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, the developments in tourism activity in general were incremental, and tourism remained largely an individual activity. Various social and technological developments have been cited for the development of tourism by many researchers such as Schmoll (1977), Schulmeister (1979), Usta (1992), Ozdemir (1992), Witt and Moutinho (1995), Seaton and Bennett (1996), Kozak *et al.*, (1996) and Icoz (1996). These factors appear to be the direct and indirect results of the Industrial Revolution, which started in the UK in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century (Kozak *et al.*, 1996), and subsequently extended to other countries in the world. They can be summarised as follows:

- An increase in leisure time and disposable income.
- Technological developments in transportation and telecommunications.
- Urbanisation and the increase in population.
- An increase in the general level of education and cultural activity.

- The introduction of social security systems.

The WTO (1990) report supports the view that these factors will contribute to the further growth of the industry in the future.

### **3.2.1 An Increase in Leisure Time and Disposable Income**

With the advent of modern production techniques after the industrial revolution, mass production became possible and the number of working hours decreased drastically. In general, especially in western societies, people maintained or increased their disposable income, and weekly working hours dropped to an average of 35 (O'Connor and Galvin 1997). Additionally, with the increasing numbers of both partners working in the family, both the disposable income and the demand for services increased (Hope and Muhlemann, 1997). With the general increase in the average income of the households, and the relative decline in the prices of basic goods such as food, shelter, heating, etc., disposable income increased sufficiently to allow increased expenditure on leisure activities for families and individuals.

### **3.2.2 Technological Developments in Transportation and Telecommunications**

The influence of technology on leisure and tourism can be explained by developments in two areas (Dogan 1997): **i)** developments in transportation and **ii)** developments in telecommunications.

#### **3.2.2.1 Developments in Transportation**

Etymologically the word *travel* comes from the French word *travail*, which means to operate under great duress and endure hardship, very tiring labour and a great danger (Icoz, 1996; Pease, 1998). The word *travail* also traditionally referred to an instrument of *torture*. Before the modernisation of transportation methods, travel was associated with adventure and it had inherent connotations of risk and danger. For travel and tourism to become a mass activity these above connotations attributed to travel had to change.

Technology has enabled transportation methods to increase in speed, comfort and safety, while simultaneously reducing costs in all forms of transport. These benefits have resulted in more people engaging in travel and tourism activities, changing tourism involvement from an individual to a mass basis.

The invention of the jet engine and the end of the Second World War led to an explosion of international travel (Schlentrach, 1996). The increase in demand coupled with the increase in seat capacities of aeroplanes, resulted in air transport becoming cheaper in real terms (Yarcan, 1994). For instance, with the developments in air travel, Turkey has become closer to European tourists who represented almost 60% of international tourists visiting the country in 1997 (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999).

### **3.2.2.1 Developments in Telecommunications**

The advent of television, satellites and the Internet has created an interest to visit and see other countries and places by a greater number of people. Having access to greater amounts of and to more reliable information has replaced hearsay about other cultures and countries, and reduced the perception of risk for potential travellers (Kozak *et al.*, 1996).

Developments in technology have also helped the formation of an integrated tourism industry structure, with easy flow of information between the tour operators, travel agencies, transportation companies and accommodation establishments. Bookings have been made possible by the touch of a computer button, and reduced costs for all industry participants.

After the first half of the 1990s, technology enabled the guests of luxury hotels to view their accounts at any time during their stay, and this resulted in checkouts which could be made quickly and more accurately by fewer staff, even without the guest's presence (Rimmington and Kozak, 1997). In the airline industry, information technology is now used for schedule display, flight planning, departure control, catering, crew management and cargo control. Such operational applications have brought higher productivity, more control, and as a result, increased service quality and consumer satisfaction levels (Rimmington and Kozak, 1997). Consequently hotel,

airline and car rental companies have linked their reservation systems to create broader distribution channels and better access for travel agencies. Sheldon (1994) mentions that the tourism and travel industry is one of the largest users of information technology due to the nature of travel industry information.

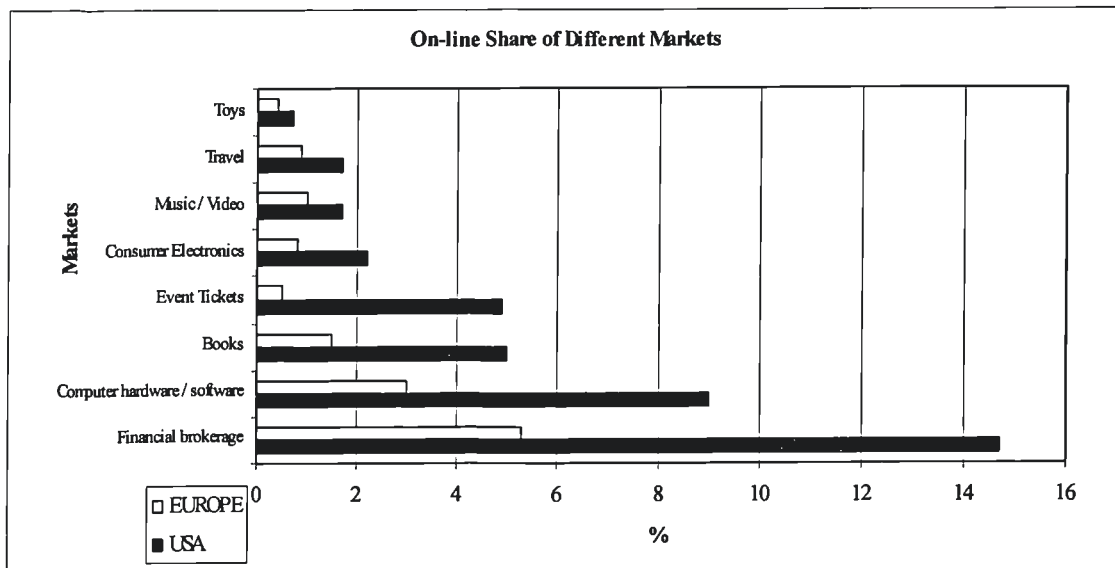
Apart from the above, information technology has enabled tourism industry firms to build customer databases (Fletcher *et al.*, 1994; Rimmington and Kozak, 1997). Through the customer databases, hotels, airlines and travel agencies have collected vital information about their customers, allowing these firms to use information in designing holiday products, customer segmentation and marketing communications messages (Bennet, 1993; Baker and Baker 1993; Opermann, 1999). The effectiveness of the marketing communications messages are very much dependent on knowing the characteristics of the target audience (Stewart and Furse, 1986; Stewart and Koslow, 1989).

The following summary from the WTO's 2020 Vision (1998) report outlines the role of information technology in tourism in the future:

- In the next decade tourists will be able to use smart cards at destinations for discounts and for travellers' cheques.
- Before travelling, tourists will be able to look, via the Internet, at different rooms and facilities at a hotel in real time through strategically placed cameras.
- CD-ROM brochures will eventually replace paper brochures.
- On-line booking via the Internet and e-ticketing will become established and grow very significantly in the next few years.
- Traveller information about preferences and lifestyles will be kept on databases and will be sold on a commercial basis.

The future of tourism described by the WTO (1998) would seem to be a realistic one

as tourism is one of the industries where the use of information technology has grown significantly over the past decade. Graph 3.1 shows that with total industry turnover of 1.7% in the USA and 0.85% in Europe (ECONOMIST, 2000), travel/tourism is one of the top eight categories of business that uses the Internet.



Graph 3.1 On-line Share of Different Markets – Source: The Economist – <http://www.economist.com/editorial/freeforall/20000226/su6868.html>

### 3.2.3 Urbanisation and the Increase in Population

The bewildering rate of urbanisation has resulted in over-crowded towns, with problems of traffic congestion, air pollution and increased noise. As a consequence people have developed a need to escape from large cities to go to other places to relax and refresh. A poor environment is classified as one of the *push factors* (Seaton and Bennet 1996), motivating people to engage in travel and holiday activities.

In addition to the above factors Dibb *et al.* (1994) point out that life style changes have also encouraged the expansion of the service sector including tourism. Small families result in more free time, relatively higher disposable income and better education for children (Goodall, 1988). Additionally, with the improved standard of living conditions and advancements in medical science, life expectancy has increased, creating a market called third age tourism.

### **3.2.4 An Increase in the Level of Education and Cultural Activity**

Just like the developments in telecommunications, the general increase in the level of education has resulted in an interest in other cultures and nations. Educated people have started to engage in rational information search instead of depending on hearsay. According to a survey carried out among the citizens of the European Union, a great majority of the people who engage in outbound tourism activities were people with higher education (TURSAB<sup>1</sup>, 1998).

### **3.2.5 The Introduction of Social Security Systems**

The wide acceptance of the human relations approach to management after the 1930s led to improvements in working conditions (Kakabadse *et al.*, 1988), together with the establishment of the annual paid-leave concept. People started to have annual paid leave, which fuelled the growth of leisure activities including tourism and travel. For instance, in the UK the tourism industry in particular has been positively affected by the increase in paid holidays since the Holidays with Pay Act 1938. Although much of this growth has been in overseas holidays, the climate in Britain being one of the significant push factors, domestic tourism activity is a considerable area of growth both as a main holiday and as a second or third holiday (Hope and Muhlemann, 1997).

It is believed that the developments in management philosophy and marketing applications also need to be added to the above mentioned influences on tourism. These developments would include a transition from production, product and selling orientations to marketing orientation (Kotler, 1998). A marketing orientation required awareness on the part of firms to anticipate and identify consumer needs on a continuous manner and to develop an appropriate marketing mix to satisfy these needs (Dibb *et al.*, 1994). Firms have become better equipped to identify consumer needs, develop appropriate products, create value and convenience for the consumer and communicate information through a variety methods and media.

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<sup>1</sup> TURSAB stands for (*Türkiye Seyahat Acentaları Birliği*) – Turkish Travel Agencies Association



### **3.3.0 The Structure of the Tourism Market**

In general terms there are five main components of the tourism market: travel organisers, accommodation providers, transport providers, attraction providers, and destination organisers (Middleton, 1998).

It should be borne in mind that the structure of tourism market and its components in terms of how they operate might vary widely from one country to another based on specific characteristics of these countries and the level of tourism development in these countries. The main purpose of investigating the components of tourism market in this chapter is to enable a deeper understanding of the components of the *infant* domestic tourism market in Turkey discussed in the following chapter. This, in turn, is expected to lead to a better understanding of the role and potential of marketing communications in this market.

It is believed that providing examples from the UK domestic tourism market, which is believed to be at the other end of the continuum of tourism development when compared with the infant domestic tourism market in Turkey, would help clarify the role played by each component operating within the Turkish domestic tourism market. Therefore, where relevant, examples from the UK market are provided in this section.

#### **3.3.1 Travel Organisers**

Travel organisers are the business firms involved in the production and distribution of tourism services such as tour operators, tour wholesalers/brokers, retail travel agents, conference organisers, booking agencies (eg accommodation) and incentive travel organisers. These organisations add value in the value chain of travel and leisure services by bringing the products /services to the final customer, ie to the tourist. Goodall (1995) proposes the following alternative forms of distribution channels in tourism industry:

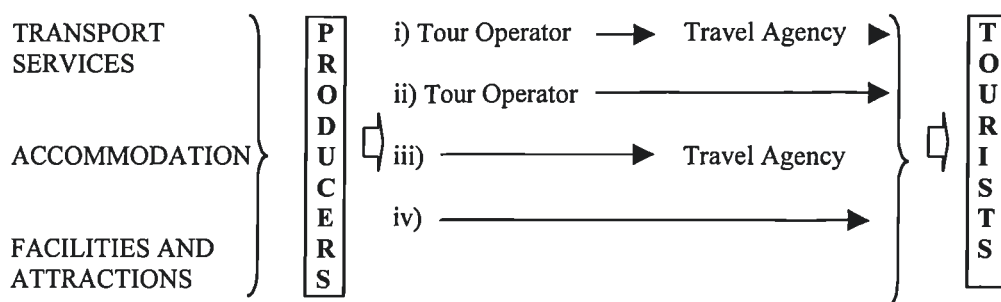


Figure 3.1 Alternative Chains of Distribution in the Tourism Industry. Source: Brian Goodall, 'Changing Patterns and Structure of European Tourism', in Brian Goodall and Gregory Ashworth (1995) *Marketing in the Tourism Industry – The Promotion of Destination Regions*, pp18-38, Routledge, London.

The idea of a package tour started first with Thomas Cook in 1841, when he organised his first excursion for 570 members of the Temperance Association from Leicester to Loughborough (Horner, 1996). Today package holidays are organised by large tour operators to offer the following to the consumer, usually with a fixed price:

- accommodation
- transport
- ground arrangements such as transfers from the airport or car hire
- services of a courier or representative

Tour operators first became a significant part of the travel industry in the 1950s, when air transport made it possible to transport large numbers of people quickly over long distances, relatively inexpensively (Witt and Moutinho, 1995). Tour operators by organising package holidays have been able to achieve economies of scale and consequently reduce their prices for consumers and attract more consumers in return. Package holidays offer two immediate benefits to the consumer; convenience and reduced prices.

The use of the services of professional business organisations, such as tour operators and travel agencies, by tourists also appear to be related to the level of perceived risk that customers may feel in purchasing a particular holiday. For instance, the use of travel agencies by the British when they go on a holiday within the UK is as low as 9% (Trinity Research, 1989). The use of travel agencies increase to 40% when the British go on holiday abroad. In the city break segment, travel agency usage increases

to 90-95%. The use of travel agencies should not be attributed to the perceived risk factor alone. For instance, Smith (1996) proposes that the low level of travel agency involvement in the UK domestic tourism market is attributable to the fact that customers prefer booking quite late, and discounting, ie getting discounts for early booking in short-breaks, is unusual. Additionally, the availability of and easy access to promotional information produced by the holiday establishments and regional tourist authorities in the UK may be expected to reduce the travel agency use. This means that domestic tourists in the UK can have access to promotional information provided by holiday establishments and the regional authorities which promote their regions. The development of tour operators and the strategic alliances in the tourism industry, both vertical and horizontal, have increased economies of scale for the operators resulting in reduced prices for the final consumers (Goodall, 1995).

In marketing holidays, the 3<sup>rd</sup> P of MacCarthy<sup>2</sup> ie. Place (distribution), becomes relatively more significant compared with the marketing of other products and services. As a holiday involves a number of services from transportation to accommodation, a necessity has arisen to programme, organise and co-ordinate these activities.

The holiday product designed by a tour operator may be sold to the final consumers either directly by the tour operator or through travel agencies who work on a commission basis. According to Hacioglu (1996), the main differences between a tour operator and the travel agency in terms of their characteristics are as follows:

Tour Operator	Travel Agency
A producer	An intermediary
Stocks the product	Does not stock
Carries risk in terms of sales	Does not carry risks
Usually a wholesaler	A retailer
Designs and prepares the product before the demand	Does not make a reservation before the demand is determined

Table 3.1 The Differences Between a Tour Operator and a Travel Agency Source: Hacioglu, N. (1996) Seyahat Acentaciligi ve Tur Operatörlüğü, Uludag Üniversitesi Basimevi. Bursa, p.12.

Based on the WTO's (1998) future vision of the world tourism industry, outlined in 3.2.2.1, it appears that the developments in information technology and especially the Internet will influence the way travel organisers carry out their businesses.

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<sup>2</sup> McCarthy coined the four P's of marketing mix elements. These are Product, Price, Place (Distribution) and Promotion (Marketing Communications). McCarthy, E.J., (1960) Basic Marketing: A Managerial Approach, Homewood, IL: Irwin.

Kierzkowski *et al.*'s (2000) study of the potential of business categories suitable for the Internet marketing supports the view that the Internet has a high potential for businesses operating within travel and tourism services sector (Figure 3.2).

Fit with the interactive media	High	News  Selected groceries	Software  Interactive games	Insurance  Music Books  Real estate brokerage	Financial services   Travel/Tourism services
	Low	Convenience stores  Gasoline	Sporting Goods	Toys  White Goods  High-end apparel  Fine Jewellery	Autos  Medical Services  Consumer electronics  Baby products
		Potential for Relationship Building			
		Low		High	

Figure 3.2 Business Categories Suitable for Digital Marketing Source: Kierzkowski, A., McQuade, S., Waitman, R., and Zeisser, M. (2000) Marketing to the Digital Consumer, in Maureen Fitzgerald and David Arnott (eds.) Marketing Communications Classics, Business Press-Thompson, London., p.298.

While Kierzkowski *et al.* (2000) emphasised the positive influence of the Internet on travel and tourism firms, Calder (1999) argued that the Internet posed threats for travel agencies. He put forward that travel agencies would be severely affected by the Internet as there will be fewer people using traditional travel agencies, and many of the consumers will prefer to purchase their holidays from Internet web sites, which provide a 24-hour-a-day service.

Kofteoglu (2000) stated that the threat of the Internet for travel agencies has already been felt in the USA, and the American Association of Travel Agencies is trying to get the support of their members to start a legal process to ensure the sovereignty of travel agencies in their field. Kofteoglu (2000) states that although in Turkey there is currently no threat from the Internet for travel agencies, travel agencies should unite and protect their rights.

On the other hand, Bigné and Andreu (1999) argued that the Internet does not pose a threat for travel agencies. They explained that although the use of the Internet as a marketing tool is increasing, it will never become a substitute for travel agencies, as people have preference for dealing with firms that can provide a full array of holiday services for all types of travel products, using human beings to interact directly with the consumer. Bécherel and Vellas (1999) support Bigné and Andreu (1999) and state that travel agencies have distinctive strengths based on proximity to the user, and on their know-how in their field of activity and holiday/products and services.

The researcher agrees with Bigné and Andreu (1999) and Bécherel and Vellas (1999) and believes that based on the know-how they have about the market they operate, travel agencies can establish competitive advantage over the *new entrants* using the Internet.

### **3.3.2 Accommodation Providers**

When tourists are away from their homes during their holidays, they need accommodation facilities such as hotels, motels, holiday villages and time-share flats. As tourists spend more or less most of their time at accommodation establishments, the accommodation as a service has a central role within the amalgamated holiday product or service. Therefore, it is important for marketing managers to design and develop accommodation services which meet the requirements of consumers. Then, the next task is to communicate the features of the accommodation service to the consumers through marketing communications.

The following extract from Davidson (1993) clearly explains the role of the accommodation service for marketing managers:

“ ‘What was the hotel like?’ and ‘What was the food like?’ are the two questions often asked by friends of people returning from their holidays, as a way of finding out whether the holiday went well”.

In the European Union member countries, the time spent on outbound holidays by people ranges from a few days to more than two weeks. While the percentage of people who stay more than two weeks on a holiday represents 36% of holidays,

holidays of two-week duration and holidays of one-week duration represent 21% and 19% respectively of all outbound holidays taken by the Europeans (TURSAB, 1998a).

In general, the UK domestic holiday market is characterised by short breaks of one to three nights, on average 2.1 days (Smith, 1996). This is because domestic holidays for the British represent a second or third holiday, alongside their main holidays abroad. In 1998, 65% of British citizens engaged in outbound tourism activities. Among the people who did not engage in outbound tourism activity, 88% of them were involved in domestic tourism activity (TURSAB, 1998a). Therefore, in the UK, domestic tourism emerges as a significant leisure activity.

In the UK domestic tourism market, 53% of tourists use non-commercial accommodation (ETB *et al.*, 1994), of which 78% of people stay with friends and relatives. However, as the nights spent increases, staying with friends and relatives as a form of accommodation declines. According to the British Hospitality Trends and Statistics (1998) report, prepared by the British Tourist Authority (BTA), between 1971 and 1996, the percentage of people staying with friends and relatives during their domestic holidays (4+1 nights) declined from 27% to 20%.

A feature of the UK commercial accommodation sector is that it is geographically widespread, with a very high percentage of owner-operated establishments and a small number of large, publicly owned hotel groups. Whilst these comprise 4% of the total number of registered hotels in the UK, they represent over 11% of the total number of registered bedrooms (Smith, 1996). As a result, the major groups do not seem to be dominating the industry in terms of market share. However, because of their marketing strength and level of market penetration, especially of the business market of these large groups, their influence on the pricing – and other – policies of independent hotels is more significant than their market share may indicate.

### **3.3.3 Transportation Providers**

As tourism involves people moving out of their normal places of residence, transport is clearly an important factor in tourism (Davidson, 1993). From a marketing viewpoint, transportation has implications particularly for two of the following

marketing communications mix elements:

- product ie service. Transportation is one of the elements of the amalgamated holiday product or service. It has an important role in determining the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the consumer of holiday products/services.
- place ie the distribution or convenience. Holiday products/services are made available to the consumers through transportation.

The main transportation providers are airlines, shipping lines/ferries, railways, bus/coach operators and car rental operators. As the definitions of tourism imply, there is a move away from the usual habitat of the tourists to a destination, which is serviced by the above forms of transportation. Transportation also represents a considerable amount of the costs involved in tourism activity. For instance, tourists visiting Turkey spend approximately 31% of their holiday budget on transportation (Icoz, 1996).

According to a survey carried out among the citizens of European member countries, a great majority of people use their own cars (60%) followed by airlines (30%) and trains (10%) when they go for a holiday abroad (TURSAB, 1998a). UK citizens prefer using their own cars especially after the construction of the Channel Tunnel. Smith (1996) sees car transport as a *facilitating* factor. The use of cars as a form of transport has increased since the completion of the Channel Tunnel, especially in visits to France.

The use of own cars by British tourists increase to 80% when they are involved in domestic tourism (ETB *et al.*, 1994).

### **3.3.4 Attractions Sector**

Middleton (1998) describes the attractions sector as consisting of theme parks, museums and galleries, national parks, wildlife parks, gardens, heritage sites and centres and sports and activity centres. This sector's involvement with sun and sea tourism may be seen as limited due to the purpose of this type of leisure activity.

However, beaches and seaside resorts are definitely attractions which act as pull factors in convincing tourists to visit a country or a region.

With the overall world trend moving away from General Interest Tourism (GIT) to Special Interest Tourism (SIT) (Culligan, 1992; Brotherton and Himmetoglu, 1997; and Krippendorf, 1987a and b), the significance of the attractions sector can be expected to increase.

### **3.3.5 Destination Organisers**

These are the National Tourist Offices (NTOs), Regional Tourist Offices, Local Tourist Offices and Tourist Associations. In general NTOs are responsible for marketing countries as destinations, and Regional and Local Tourists Offices are responsible for marketing *regions and resorts within a country (Middleton 1998)*. These organisations emphasise the attractions of the destination area, rather than particular holiday packages per se. Ashworth and Goodall, (1995) mention the existence of a dichotomy in tourism marketing in terms of the scope of the activities carried out by tour operators/travel agencies and the destination organisers. The activities of the National/Regional and Local Tourist Organisations vary from one country to another as well.

### **3.4.0 Characteristics of Tourism as a Service Offer**

Tourism management involves a combination of many service sector activities ranging from transportation to accommodation and catering. It can therefore be analysed within the framework of services management. In a study of marketing communications within the domestic tourism sector, it is important to revisit the key writings that have helped to distinguish the study of services management from that of management in general, and to examine the recent discussions related to this distinction. Such writings form a part of the theoretical base against which to juxtapose, analyse and interpret empirical evidence.

The idea that the tertiary sector is worthy of study in its own right is a relatively recent phenomenon. The earliest writings on the value of services do not go back



beyond the work of Alfred Marshal (1890) who argued that '*a person providing a service was just as capable of giving utility to the recipient as someone producing a tangible product*' (Palmer, 1994). Early economists like Adam Smith paid little attention to services, classifying them as totally *unproductive*, adding *nothing of value* to an economy (Smith 1977 [1776], p. 430).

However, when Adam Smith said that consumption is the *sole end and purpose of production*, he was in fact describing what in recent years has become known as the marketing concept (McDonald, 1995). As explained in 2.1, the central idea of marketing is to create a match between a company's capabilities and the wants of customers in order to achieve the objectives of both parties through an exchange process.

Although services have now been recognised as a separate phenomenon, there have been arguments both about the extent to which services should be considered as a distinctive area of study in marketing and also the applicability of traditional marketing principles to services, (Gronroos, 1978; Lovelock , 1981; Shostack, 1977; Berry, 1980; and Rathmell ,1974).

Glynn and Barnes (1995) who have looked at the development of the application of marketing principles to services have identified three periods to explain this development. The first period is known as the *crawling out* period, where there was much doubt about the successful application of marketing principles that were developed for 'goods products'. The crawling out period was followed by a *scurrying about* period that was marked by Zeithaml *et al.*'s (1985 and 1990) two articles. In the first of these they proposed a conceptual framework which summarised the unique characteristics of services. Based on these service characteristics, they later published their conceptual model of service quality. The period after 1985 was named by Glynn and Barnes (1995) as the *walking erect* period characterised by fast growth of publications together with increasing theoretical and empirical vigour.

According to Zeithaml *et al.* (1985), the unique characteristics that have been assumed to exist under the services marketing paradigm are *intangibility*, *inseparability*, *heterogeneity* and *perishability*. However, it should be borne in mind

that the paradigm illustrates only the main differences of services when compared with goods products, and it does not provide a model for marketing service products as the name of their paradigm suggests. Nevertheless, it is very important to clearly identify and understand services marketing issues in order to be able to develop appropriate marketing communications messages. These characteristics of services put forward by Zeithaml *et al.* (1985) can be considered as the differences of services when compared with goods products. It is the belief of this researcher that these differences should not be thought of as the weaknesses as they can provide opportunities for marketing managers.

### **Intangibility**

Unlike physical products, services cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard or smelt before they are purchased (Cowell, 1984). The traditional view of the main difference between products and services is based on the fact that ‘ goods are produced, services are performed’ (Baker, 1981). The lack of physical evidence that intangibility implies increases the level of uncertainty which a customer faces when choosing between competing services (Palmer 1994). This lack of physical evidence may cause difficulty for customers when evaluating services offered by competing companies. Goods products lend themselves to comparability more easily due to the tangible product attributes such as colour, size, design, packaging etc.

Witt and Moutinho (1995) stress that, due to the lack of physical evidence and abstract qualities of services, customers place a greater emphasis on personal information sources. However, this, rather than rendering the non-personal marketing communications as ineffective, places a more crucial role on non-personal marketing communications. Non-personal communication can and should be used to reduce this uncertainty arising from the lack of physical evidence, by providing a clear statement in the form of advertising copy, a display stand, a news release or internal décor in helping consumers to form an understanding of the nature of the service such as hospitality experience (Teare *et al.*, 1994). Once again, this implies that there is leverage in improving the quality of marketing communications in order to reduce the problems associated with intangibility.

Another issue relating to service intangibility is that price can become the primary tool for consumers to distinguish between competing products. Palmer (1994) states that the intangibility element results in using price as a basis for assessing quality by the customers, which may explain the increased price competition within the tourism industry. For instance, in the UK, competition was mainly price based in the 1980s (Thompson, 1996). Customers may feel that the price of the service indicates certain elements of information about its quality and expected benefits. This phenomenon would seem to limit the ability of travel agencies or tour operators to create favourable associations with consumers for their products by other means. However, it could also be seen as an industry assumption i.e. seeing price as the most effective tool for differentiation, which has in fact reduced the search for other ways to differentiate service offerings. It is this researcher's belief that price, rather than being a tool to differentiate products and services, should be seen as the outcome of the marketing mix strategies related to a product or service. Marketing strategy, including marketing communications strategies can help consumers to make more informed and effective decisions, and thereby help reduce the problem of intangibility. Thomson (1996) mentions that in the 1980s, rivalry in British package holidays mainly took the form of price competition, as the players such as Thomson Holidays, Intasun and International Leisure Group thought that product differentiation was difficult and the only way to compete was to reduce prices. According to a survey carried out by Holiday Which magazine, competition on the basis of product differentiation is possible, as customers found distinct variances between package holidays marketed by different tour operators in the same destination and accommodation facilities (Holiday Which, 1999). On the other hand, Turkish travel agencies operating in the domestic market have not engaged in price competition so far. This may be due to the fact that the managers were more aware of the fact that the market structure is oligopolistic as explained in 4.3.2.1, and price competition would reduce the profit margins for all players in the market.

As the level of intangibility varies from one service to another (Rathmell, 1966; and Shostack, 1977) and many tangible products have service elements (Wycham *et al.*, 1975), the debate on the limitations of intangibility as a weakness of services is not a fruitful one. Thus, intangibility should be seen as a feature of services rather than a

weakness and the focus of attention should be more on the needs *satisfiers* or *utilities* for particular market segments (Wycham *et al.*, 1975). For instance, Enis and Roering (1981) argued that:

‘Buyers purchase neither tangible objects or intangible features; rather they purchase a bundle of benefits’.

When a service involves providing an experience of any kind, whether it be relaxing, exciting, entertaining, romantic or exhilarating, defining the dimensions of that service is fraught with difficulties. If intangibility is accepted as a service marketing constraint, then more emphasis should be placed on developing effective marketing communications to overcome this barrier. For instance, to overcome the problems associated with intangibility, George and Berry (1981) and Payne (1993) suggest the use of tangible cues about the physical facilities with more emphasis in marketing communications. Examples of tangible cues may include information about the distance between the hotel and the beach, the size of the swimming pool, or even the number of waiters at the restaurant to serve the customers. Hanefors and Mossberg (1998) recommend the use of personnel in the service encounter as a strategic resource to fulfil tourists’ expectations, both for reducing the consequences of intangibility and differentiating the service offer from the other service providers.

Kotler (1997) explains that the importance of physical products lies not so much in owning them as in obtaining the service they render. Concentration on service features may lead to a product-oriented approach and result in marketing myopia (Levitt 1960). Levitt (1974) argues that it is not helpful to build rigid boundaries between products and services and observes (1972) that:

‘There is no such thing as service industries. There are only industries where service components are greater or lesser than those of other industries.’

Buttle (1986) supports Levitt’s (1981) view, and applies it to tourism and hospitality services, saying that consumers seek intangible benefits in the form of satisfaction, regardless of whether the product is tangible or intangible. Therefore, it may be suggested that marketing communications messages should be designed to emphasise

the benefits consumers may get from consuming a product, rather than providing a mere list of the product attributes.

### **Inseparability**

Services are typically produced and consumed simultaneously. The consumer consumes the product usually at the service provider's premises. The consumer is involved in the production process of services as one item of input in the transformation process. Irons (1983) reports that service and manufacturing industries have different consumer-producer interface characteristics. As many as 90% of the staff in service organisations have direct contact with the consumer, compared with only 10% in manufacturing.

Goods are produced first, then stored, distributed, sold and consumed. Due to the separable nature of products, manufacturing companies can achieve economies of scale through centralised production.

Apart from the potential disadvantages related to economies of scale, the inseparability characteristic of services has implications for quality too. For goods products, there exist many opportunities for monitoring quality before the customer receives the product. For services, as the production and exchange usually take place at the same time, they are more prone to cause dissatisfaction for the customer.

From the viewpoint of marketing communications, intangibility and inseparability appear to have the same sort of implications. Both would cause the customer not to be able to see and test the product prior to consumption. This would further emphasise the need for reassurance of the customers in the form of marketing communications. Marketing managers should attempt to provide evidence to convince customers that their holiday experience will at least meet and perhaps exceed their expectations.

### **Heterogeneity/Variability**

Services are highly variable and heterogeneous as they depend on who provides them

and when, where and for whom they are provided. The *heterogeneity* characteristic of services is largely connected with the vagaries of human interaction between and among service contact employees and consumers. Therefore, the heterogeneous nature of services may increase the perception of risk by the consumers. It is the duty of marketing communicators to inform the customer that the benefits they get will meet their expectations.

Parasuraman and Bitner (1996) state that 'because services are performances, frequently produced by humans, no two services will be precisely alike. The employees delivering the service frequently *are* the service in the customer's eyes, and people may differ in their performance from day to day or even hour to hour. Satisfaction on one occasion is, therefore, no guarantee of satisfaction on a subsequent occasion (Deighton, 1994). Heterogeneity also occurs because no two customers are precisely alike; each will have unique demands and will experience the service in a unique way.

Heterogeneity would also cause difficulty in measuring service performance. To monitor customer expectations and the quality of the service Parasuraman *et al.* (1983) identified five gaps which may occur during a service transaction:

- Differences between consumer expectations and management perceptions of consumer expectations.
- Differences between management perceptions of consumer expectations and service quality specifications.
- Differences between service quality specifications and the service actually delivered.
- Differences between service delivery and what is communicated about the service to the consumer.
- Differences between the perceived and expected service.

Marketing managers, through marketing research, should be in a position to understand their consumers' expectations and in return inform them that their expectations will be met. In the tourism industry it is the job of marketing managers to ensure that their holiday products are designed in such a manner that there will be none of the gaps outlined above. Additionally, this information needs to be communicated internally to the members of the firm and externally to the consumers.

### **Perishability**

Services cannot be saved, stored, resold or returned. Spare seats on a package tour, a vacant room in a hotel or any unsold tourism event, represent potential revenue that cannot be recovered. Perishability increases tension for the managers to perform (Bowen, 1998).

Services, and especially tourism operations, are usually characterised by high fixed costs and sensitive profit margins. Irregularities in demand for services (Kotas, 1975 and 1977) such as seasonality factors tend to render management of tourism operations difficult. Demand management and differential pricing become crucial tasks in the management of services. Perishability may also cause service providers to resort to sales promotion more heavily, as they are pressed for making a sale, and this may hurt brand image when used inappropriately. This places an added emphasis on integrating marketing communications so as to reduce the effects of perishability within the service sector.

### **Specific Characteristics of Tourism Products**

In addition to the general service characteristics cited above, tourism products have specific characteristics, which make them different from other services (Hanefors and Mossberg, 1998):

- The tourist consumes a total experience, maybe a mental idea, while the tourism product is a package of several products- transport, lodging, food and various activities – and it is difficult to control each element.

- Production and consumption take place during a longer period of time – motives may alter and change. A hair cut service may last an hour while a holiday may last significantly longer. Marketing managers should attempt to establish mechanisms to monitor their service offer and the expectations of the consumers throughout the consumption process.
- While travelling, the tourist executes several parallel motives in an individual and situational combination. It may be difficult to identify the hidden motives of the potential consumers. However, efforts should be made to identify these motives as clearly as possible, and to develop products that would meet the expectations of the consumers.
- The tourist is not always aware of her/his motives for consumption, perhaps the main motive is to take a step out of the ordinary (the ‘hidden’ motive) –dreams and fantasies, anywhere rather than somewhere. In other words, needs may not be destination specific, and hence, the benefits rather than the destination attributes may have to be emphasised.
- When travelling, the tourist leaves everyday life, for a limited period of time, and is *allowed* to challenge the norms of the ordinary. S/he may behave in an extraordinary way, consuming intensively and differently.

Although the risk element on the part of the consumer is high for services in general, it could be said that decisions related to tourism may cause higher levels of risk perception by the consumers. When Goodall (1988) classified tourism as a high-risk purchase, he compared tourism with tangible products. There is a need to distinguish tourism from other services in terms of risk perception due to the following factors identified by Witt and Moutinho (1995):

- Tourism decisions involve committing large sums of money on something which cannot be seen or tested prior to purchase. Although tourism and travel activities of individuals may represent a relatively smaller proportion of time, they may involve large sums of expenditures. For instance, a week’s holiday



may represent less than 2% of time duration in a fifty two-week year.

However, the amount of money spent on a holiday may be as high as 10% or more of a tourist's annual income (Tekelioglu, 1998).

- Tourism decisions involve large emotional investments. Whole families look forward to and backwards from holiday activities, so the fear of failure is high, and the opportunity cost irreversible. If a holiday goes wrong, that is it for another year.
- Holidays often involve encounters with the unknown in terms of destinations, accommodation, transport etc.

Perceived risk motivates intensified information seeking and (if not properly reduced) erects a consumption barrier around the unacceptable alternatives (Witt and Moutinho, 1995), and hence makes the design of marketing communications messages, in the tourism market, a significant task.

### **3.5 Decision Making and the Motives for Travel**

McIntosh *et al.*'s (1995) definition of tourism which was introduced in 3.1.0, was a mechanistic one and emphasised only the *physical* movement away from one's usual habitat. However, the overall motive for travelling is to move both *physically* and *socially* (Crick, 1989). The physical move means that the tourist leaves her/his familiar surroundings and comes into contact with an environment which might be different in many respects from the one s/he is used to.

The social move, on the other hand, represents that the tourist, for a certain limited period of time, is leaving his/her everyday life behind-s/he takes a step '... beyond the boundaries of ordinary social reality' (Crick, 1989). Jafari (1987) describes this as a movement from *ordinary* to *non-ordinary*. Graburn (1983) describes this movement away from ordinary life as:

"a separation from the normal 'instrumental' life and the business of making a living, and offering entry into another kind of moral state in which mental, expressive, and cultural needs come into fore".

According to Jafari (1986) 'the ordinary is comprised of the mundane, profane, daily life whose procession loses strength due to its ordained rhythmic course; while the non-ordinary is the heightened position resulting from the departure from the ordinary ranks'. It is believed that the notion of movement away from the *ordinary life* to *non-ordinary* has implications for marketing managers both from viewpoint of designing services and communicating with consumers.

However, the real motives why tourists move away from the *ordinary* to *non-ordinary life*, and the expectations of tourists may not be as clear as it seems. Various researchers like Dann (1979) and Jafari (1987) commented on the complexity of travel motives, and instead of explaining motives and offered a number of purposes for travel (Thomas, 1964; Gray, 1970; and Lundberg, 1972).

For any individual, the decision to take a holiday stems from both needs and desires. The needs are intrinsic, an innate condition arising from a lack of something necessary to the individual's well-being, and reflecting emotional, spiritual and physical drives (Goodall, 1995). On the other hand, desires are extrinsic, a feeling that the individual would get pleasure or satisfaction from doing something, and are acquired and dependent on the value system prevalent in the society. For this reason tourism may be seen as an optimising process in which individuals attempt to change their current state (Iso-Ahola, 1983). Therefore, tourism motivation can be conceptualised as a balance of *pull* and *push factors* (Dann, 1979) that motivate the tourist to take a holiday (Seaton and Bennett, 1996). Push factors being those factors which make people wish to get away from one place, and pull factors are the positive attractions that draw people to a new one.

Motives can be defined as the driving forces to satisfy a felt need which cause individuals to behave in a certain manner (Guirdham, 1996). When travel motives are discussed, Maslow's (1954) early work on the hierarchy of needs is often referred to. Maslow (1954) defined five levels of needs, from lowest to highest:

- 1      Physiological (food, water, shelter). For instance, is the food provided at the hotel sufficient, delicious or not?

- 2 Safety (protection, security, stability). Is the transportation or the location safe?
- 3 Social (affection, friendship, acceptance). Will I meet new people during the holiday?
- 4 Ego (prestige, success, self-esteem). When I talk about my holiday, will my friends be impressed?
- 5 Self-actualisation (self-fulfilment). Will I have a meaningful personal experience?

As briefly mentioned in 3.3.4 and 3.2.3, there are two main factors which dominate the study of motives;

- i) the tourist travels away *from* something (escape, ie push factors) and
- ii) *to* something (compensation, ie pull factors), at the same time (Hanefors and Mossberg, 1998).

The escape motives are characterised as motives dominated by the need to leave everyday life – ‘pleasure from change’. In this respect the holiday may offer a break from the daily routines. Seaton and Bennett (1996) mentions the following push or escape factors:

- Avoidance of work (eg. getting up early, answering numerous phone calls, dealing with difficult people etc.).
- Lack of autonomy (eg. tight schedules, work requirements, etc.).
- Poor environment (working or social and general). (eg. bad weather).
- Cultural/social pressures at home. (eg. for a housewife the need to look after children).
- Impact of tourism publicity on potential consumers.

On the other hand, compensation motives, also known as ‘pull factors’ help the tourist to decide where to go – ‘pleasure from the novelty’. The escape motives must be seen

to be linked together with individual characteristics and with the cultural background of a specific tourist. Likewise, the compensation motives are linked together with the prerequisites of a specific destination and activities offered there, ie the destination attributes. A specific destination may attract a certain type of tourist. For instance, as Bodrum (a holiday resort on the Aegean coast of Turkey) is known for its nightlife, it attracts single tourists more than families (TURSAB, 1999).

Seaton and Bennett (1996) mentions the following pull factors:

- Seeking leisure/play.
- Freedom and escape.
- Attractive environment (eg good climate. For instance, the south coast of Turkey is sunny and it attracts European tourists, while not many tourists visit the Black Sea coast which is often rainy and cloudy).
- Positive attractions of host culture.
- Impact of tourism publicity.

Seaton and Bennett (1996) emphasised the impact of tourism publicity both as a pull and push factor. As discussed earlier on, the role of hedonic clues in conveying push appeals should not be underestimated. Erik Cohen's (1974) definition of tourists supports this hedonic aspect and emphasises pleasure as the driving force resulting from *novelty* and *change*. Crompton (1979) identified motives along a cultural-socio-psychological continuum. These motives provide a synthesis of the motives suggested above, when escape and compensation benefits were discussed. According to Crompton (1979), motives which are towards the socio-psychological end of the continuum are: escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship and relationships and facilitation of social interaction. On the other hand, cultural motives proposed by Crompton (1979) are located at the other end of the continuum, and include the search for novelty and learning.

Research efforts in tourism decision-making and consumer behaviour have mainly developed through two pathways:

- i) consumer behaviour models; and
- ii) tourist typologies.

### **Consumer Behaviour and Tourist Decision- Making Models**

Models developed by Moutinho (1986), Goodall (1995), Seaton (1996), Kotler (1996) and Middleton (1998) are logical-flow models of consumer decision-making, although they vary in terms of their comprehensiveness. These highly rational, cognitive models resemble the general consumer behaviour models of *black box models*, and *multi-variable models* of consumer behaviour such as the Howard-Ostlund Model (1973), the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (1978) and the Nicosia Model (1968). The black box model of buying behaviour is based on the psychological, approach, which projects the human being as the processor in a system with outputs (behaviour) (Chisnall (1995). *On the other hand, multivariable models are more* comprehensive and they attempt to formalise the multiple influences that affect the purchase decision.

In general, consumer behaviour and decision-making models concentrate on a number of influences which may play a role in the decision making process of the consumer (See Figure 3.3 and 3.4) such as:

- *Marketing influences*; product, price, place and especially promotion ie marketing communications.
- *Social influences*; culture and subculture, social class, reference groups, role and family influence.
- *Personal traits*; personality, learning, motivation, perception, attitudes.
- Other influences; economic, political, social, technological, etc.

Goodall (1995) developed a Tourist's Holiday Decision Model (Figure 3.3) to explain the holiday selection process by tourists from the viewpoint of marketing. His model starts with the needs and desires of the customers. For any individual, the decision to

take a holiday (in fact to purchase any product or service) stems from both needs and desires. Together, needs and desires determine motivations, ie definite and positive inclinations to do something, as explained above. To convert motivations into a holiday trip requires the identification of the tourist's preferences and a knowledge of holiday opportunities.

In Goodall's (1995) model, mental images are the basis of the evaluation or selection process (See dashed eclipse in Figure 3.3). All activities and experiences are given mental ratings, good or bad, and each individual, given their personal likes and dislikes, has a *preferential image* of their holiday. This forms the individual's expectations, establishing an aspirational level or *evaluative image*, against which the holiday attributes and benefits are compared. An individual's perception of holiday opportunities is conditioned by the information available (Goodall, 1995). The information may be derived from formal sources, ie commercial sources, eg newspaper advertisements, brochures, travel agencies, or informal sources, ie social sources, eg friends and relatives. From the information available regarding the perceived opportunity set, the potential tourist constructs an image of the holidays. However, there may be several holiday options from the perceived opportunity set which may appear to meet the individual's expectations. Here, a further evaluation takes place by the individual according to criteria such as family, value for money, etc. which may force the individual to make a compromise. For instance, the number of children in the family, their age, etc. may influence the final decision of the individual. Having identified the holiday which appears to exceed the aspirational level by the greatest amount, the individual makes a booking.

The Consumer Buying Behaviour Model developed by Goodall (1995) is similar to Moutinho's (1986) 'Consumer Buying Behaviour Model' (Figure 3.4). This model outlines the individual factors, such as personality, life styles, perceived role set and motives which are influential in the determination of the 'preference structure' ie the choice set in the holiday decision making:

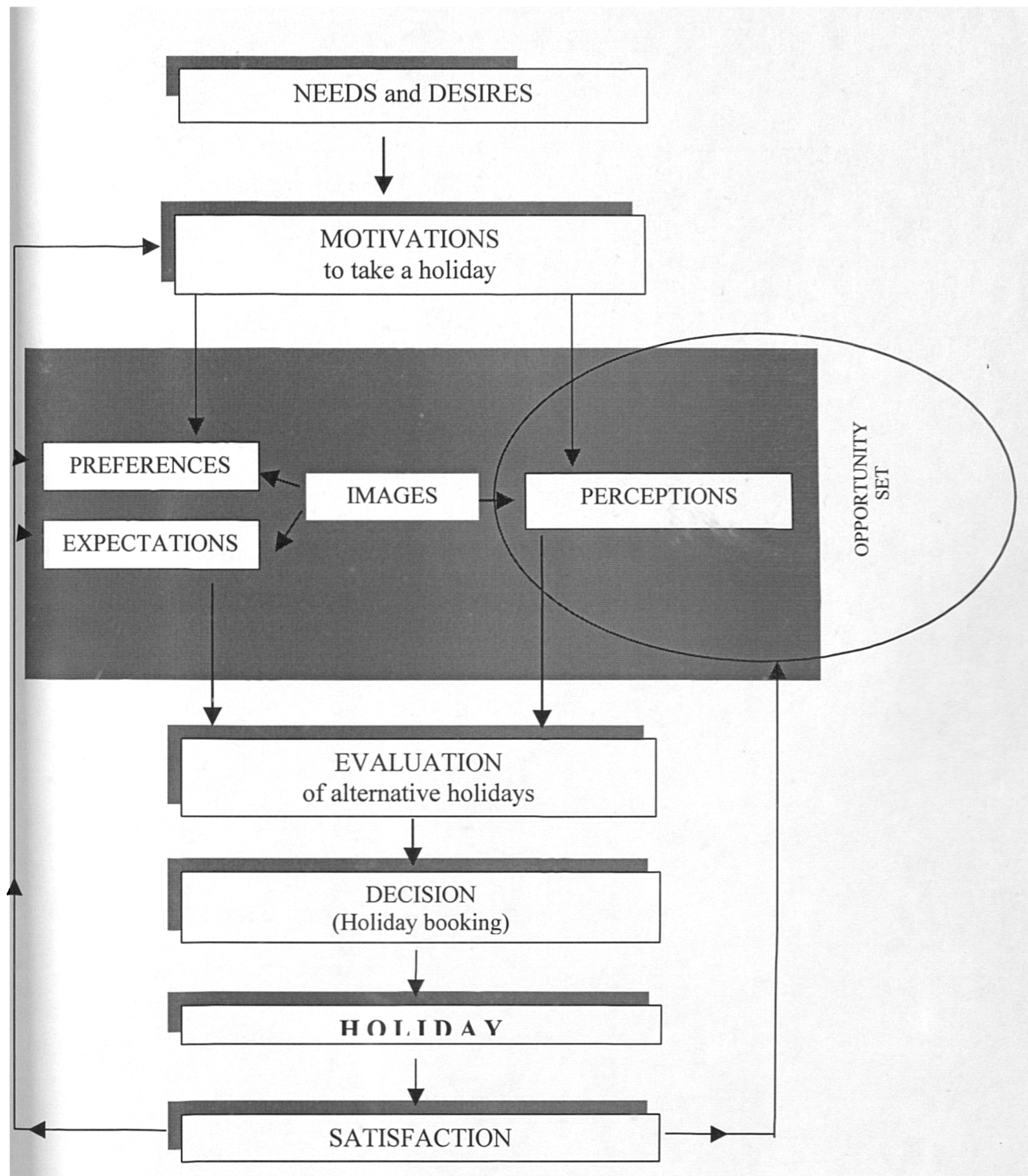


Figure 3.3 The Tourist's Holiday Decision. Source: Brian Goodall (1995) *How Tourists Choose Their Holidays: An Analytical Framework* in Goodall, B. and Ashworth, G. (eds.) *Marketing in the Tourism Industry --The Promotion of Destinations*, pp.1-17, Routledge, London.

The various influences on decision making of individuals were discussed in Chapter 2. Here the researcher intends to concentrate on the motives behind the holiday decision as they have direct implications for product design, segmentation and marketing communications.

## PRE-DECISION AND DECISION PROCESS

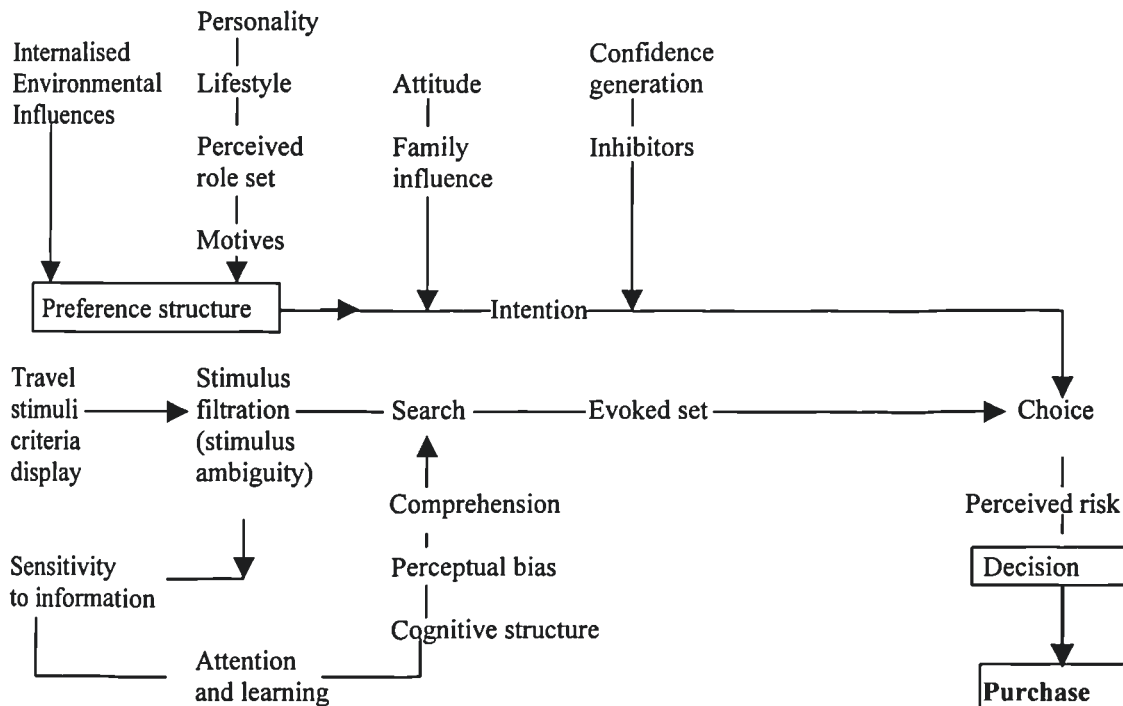


Figure 3.4 Source: Moutinho, L., 'Consumer behaviour in tourism', *Management Bibliographies and Reviews*. Vol. 12, no.3 (1986) MCB University Press, Bradford.

The consumer behaviour models of Goodall (1995) and Moutinho (1986), explained above, have been instrumental in introducing and explaining consumer behaviour in holiday decision making. However, the researcher is of the opinion that these models mainly serve academic needs, and have limitations if they are to be used by marketing practitioners. These models attempt to explain the likely influences on the decision making process of consumers and assume that all consumers go through the same process. Additionally, the models do not have practical implications for designing holiday products or marketing communications messages.

On the other hand, tourist typology studies which are explained below, attempt to explain what consumers/tourists prefer/do/would like to do on their holidays and hence have practical implications for marketing managers from the viewpoint of product (package holiday) design, segmentation and marketing communications. However, having said this, the researcher is also aware of the pitfalls in adhering to overly prescriptive tourist typology models. The roles described by the typology models are not static and may change over time (Culligan, 1992). Pearce (1988) argued that the holiday roles played by individuals and their motivations and hence



the typologies they may be assigned to, change as they go through a ‘travel career ladder’ as follows:

- Relaxation (need for bodily reconstitution, relaxation, etc).
- Stimulation (a concern for his/her and other’s safety).
- Relationship (giving and receiving affection, initiating and maintaining relationships, to be with group membership).
- Self-esteem and development (development of skills, special interests, external awards, prestige, glamour of travelling).
- Fulfilment (fulfil a dream, understanding oneself more, experiencing inner peace and harmony).

### **Tourist Typology Models**

There have been a number of studies conducted into the identification of ‘leisure types’, which have focused on the nature of the leisure product/experience in terms of ‘*activity typologies*’. The typology approach is characterised in the work undertaken by deGrazia (1994), and a range of earlier studies conducted by researchers such as Tatham and Dornoff (1971), Hendee *et al.* (1971), Romsa (1973), Kelly (1983).

Typically these studies have proposed a range of typology dimensions, often of a bi-polar nature, including those of (Brotherton and Himmetoglu, 1997):

- |                           |                           |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| * Active - Passive        | * Participant – Spectator |
| * Solitary – Social       | * Indoor – Outdoor        |
| * Appreciative – Symbolic | * Extractive – Symbolic   |
| * Passive – Free Play     | * Sociable - Learning     |

Figure 3.5 provides a chronological summary of the typology models developed by various researchers.

The typology models developed by the researchers below (see Figure 3.5) outline mainly the types of activities tourists may prefer to engage during their holidays. Cohen (1972) and Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992) models also offer typologies from a different perspective, which is the organisation of holidays, ie whether tourists prefer organising their own holidays or use the services of professional organisations such as tour operators and travel agencies.

After a detailed study of the above typology models, the researcher believes that the model developed by Yiannakis and Gibson (1990; 1992) is the most comprehensive and particularly helpful one in understanding tourist behaviour. It is believed that the real value of Yiannakis and Gibson's (1990; 1992) study lies in the practical implications of the tourist roles identified by these researchers for marketing managers in designing their marketing mix strategies, including their marketing communications strategies. Yiannakis and Gibson (1990; 1992) analysed the consumers' final behavioural manifestations, rather than concentrating their efforts on the not so clear individualistic characteristics of the customers such as personality or life styles which traditional consumer behaviour models were developed around.

Yiannakis and Gibson (1992), identified the existence of 13 leisure-based tourist roles, driven by specific motives. The findings of their studies suggest the existence of three bipolar dimensions of Stimulation-Tranquillity (Y-axis), Strangeness-Familiarity (X-axis) and Structure-Independence (Z-axis). The X-axis reflects a preference for familiar environment at the one end of the continuum and a strange environment (novelty) at the other. The Y-axis represents the extent to which roles differ in their preference for tranquil (stable) environments and stimulating environments with various activities. The Z-axis (Structure-Independence) reflects a balance between the requirements for some organisation and planning on the one end of the continuum, and preference for settings permitting spontaneity on the other. The Figure 3.6 shows the characteristics of these 13 leisure based tourist roles, in terms of the three dimensions explained above.

Researchers	Typologies
Cohen (1972)	Organised Mass Tourist, Individual Mass Tourist, The Explorer and The Drifter.
Plog (1974)	Psychocentrics, Near-Psychocentrics, Near Allocentrics, Allocentrics <sup>3</sup> .
Perreault <i>et al.</i> (1977)	Budget Travellers, Adventurers, Homebodies, Vacationers and Moderates.
Westvlams Economisch Studiebureau (1986)	Active Sea Lovers, Contact-Minded Holidaymakers, Rest Seekers, Discoverers, Family-Oriented Sun and Sea Lovers and Traditionalists.
Dalen (1989)	Modern Materialist, Modern Idealist, Traditional Idealist and Traditional Materialist
American Express (1989)	Adventurers, Worriers, Dreamers, Economisers and Indulgers.
Yiannakis and Gibson (1992)	Sun Lover, Action Seeker, Anthropologist, Archaeologist, Organised Mass Tourist, Thrill Seeker Explorer, Jetsetter, Seeker, Independent Mass Tourist, High Class Tourist, The Drifter and The Escapist.

Figure 3.5 Tourist Typologies, Adapted from Brotherton, B., and Himmetoglu, B. (1997) Beyond Destinations-Special Interest Tourism, *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Volume 8, Number 3, pp. 11-30

<sup>3</sup>Plog (1974) suggested that tourists could be categorised into three broad typologies.

i) *Allocentrics*: They are more adventurous, travelling in small numbers independently. They happily mix with the local people. Allocentrics are prepared to fit in with local customs and would prefer an authentic rather than a *staged* atmosphere. For allocentrics achieving a sense of something new and being in different surroundings are important.

ii) *Mid-centrics* (Near -Psychocentrics and Near-Allocentrics): These tourists will usually travel to places that have been placed on the travel map. They visit destinations starting to be on the path of commercialism.

iii) *Psychocentrics*: These are the *mass* tourists who expect familiar surroundings from their chosen destination. Good facilities, nice swimming pools and well-organisation of holidays are important.

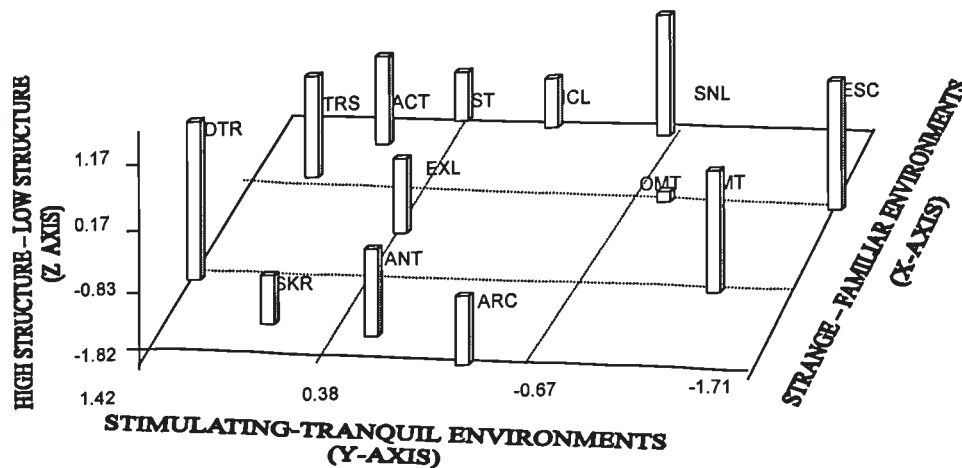


Figure 3.6 Tourist Roles in Three Dimensional Space – Yiannakis, A. and Gibson, H. (1992) Roles Tourists Play, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.19, pp.292.

Although Yinnakis and Gibson (1988) had international tourism in mind, their findings can be applied to domestic tourism as well, since variables used in the model are *not* destination bound. These tourist roles are as follows:

#### 1 Sun Lover (SNL)

Interested in relaxing and sunbathing in warm places with lots of sun, sand and sea.

#### 2 Action Seeker (ACT)

Mostly interested in partying, going to nightclubs and meeting the opposite sex for uncomplicated romantic experiences.

#### 3 Anthropologist (ANT)

Mostly interested in meeting local people, trying the food and speaking the language.

#### 4 Archaeologist (ARC)

Mostly interested in archaeological sites and ruins; enjoys studying history of ancient civilisations.

#### 5 Organised Mass Tourist (OMT)

Mostly interested in organised vacations, package tours taking pictures and buying lots of souvenirs.

#### 6 Thrill Seeker (TRS)

Interested in risk, exhilarating activities which provide emotional highs, such as sky diving and bungee jumping.

### **7 Explorer (EXL)**

Prefers adventure travel , exploring out the way places challenges in getting there.

### **8 Jetsetter (JST)**

Interested in vacations in elite world class resorts, goes to exclusive nightclubs and socialises with celebrities.

### **9 Seeker (SKR)**

Seeker of spiritual and /or personal knowledge to better understand self and meaning of life.

### **10 Independent Mass Tourist (IMT)**

Visits regular tourist attractions but makes own travel arrangements and often “plays it by ear”.

### **11 High Class Tourist (HCT)**

Travels first class, stays in best hotels, goes to shows, and dines at the best restaurants.

### **12 Drifter (DTR)**

Drifts from place to place living a hippie style existence.

### **13 Escapist (ESC)**

Enjoys taking it easy and getting away from it all and peaceful places.

A brief analysis of Figure 3.6 reveals certain common characteristics between the Sun Lover (SNL), the Organised Mass Tourist (OMT), the Independent Mass Tourist (IMT). The Independent Mass Tourist (IMT) and to a lesser extent the Organised Mass Tourist seem to prefer tranquil environments (Y-axis). The Independent Mass Tourist’s preference for more tranquil environments is balanced by the fact that they choose less familiar destinations, while the Organised Mass Tourist (OMT) appears to seek slightly more excitement/stimulation in more familiar settings. While the relative positional proximity of these roles might lead to a conclusion that they reflect somewhat similar patterns of behaviour (and possibly motivation), it is not until the Z-axis (structure-Independence) is examined that further differences emerge.

Wahlers and Etzel (1985) propose that people who are stimulation avoiders exhibit a preference for activities of lower arousal potential such as structured, traditional package holiday. Although Escapists (ESC) are the biggest stimulation avoiders, they

shun traditional and highly structured package holidays. It needs to be explained here is that Escapists (ESC) do not avoid all stimulation. In other words, they may avoid *physical* stimulation but not *mental* stimulation. Contrary to Escapists (ESC), Organised Mass Tourists, who also prefer more tranquil environments, exhibit a high need for organisation and structure in their holiday preference. This is especially true of women in this group and is consistent with the findings by Quiroga (1990).

Based on the evidence of the research of Yiannakis and Gibson (1992), it appears that Organised Mass Tourists and other lower stimulation –seeking types, as referred to by Wahlers and Etzel (1985), may not, in fact, be true stimulation avoiders but may be low risk takers. Unlike Organised Mass Tourists, Independent Mass Tourists avoid package vacations to be more spontaneous and independent. Thus, while Independent Mass Tourists prefer more tranquil environments, they appear to seek novelty and change associated with less familiar environments (X-axis), as opposed to the more arousal-producing, stimulus overloading tension of the Y-axis. Islamoglu's (1995) research findings are supportive of Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992), who argued that independent tourists are more likely to seek novelty and change, while mass tourists are more likely to prefer *tranquil and familiar environments*. *Sun Lovers (SNL)* seem to have a preference for highly structured (X-axis) holidays in highly familiar and relatively tranquil environments. Gray (1970) described this motive as *sunlust*. The characteristics of the OMTs, IMTs and SNLs are very much similar to the implications of two different tourist motivations. Iso-Ahola (1982) noted two motivations for touristic activity:

- the desire to leave behind an environment and
- the desire to seek and intrinsic reward.

In Iso-Ahola's (1982) grid, a high level of desire for the intrinsic reward and a high level of desire to leave the environment can be associated with the main characteristics of EXLs and IMTs, while a low level of desire for the intrinsic reward and a low level of desire to leave the environment can be associated with the

		Desire to leave environment	
		Strong	Weak
Desire for the intrinsic reward (experience of the new)	Strong	Tendency to exploration- seeks unknown places	Seeks intense experience in familiar locations-push to travel is weak
	Weak	Seeks relaxation, escape in familiar places- mass tourist destination	Not loyal to place or activity- tendency to inertia is strong

Figure 3.7 Main Tourist Motivations Source: Iso-Ahola, S. (1982) 'Towards a Social Psychology of Tourists Motivation: A Rejoinder', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9, 256-261.

characteristics of OMTs and SNLs. However, a high level of desire to leave the environment, coupled with low level of intrinsic reward can be associated with ESCs. On the other hand, a low level of desire to leave the environment, coupled with high level of intrinsic reward can be associated with ACTs.

### 3.6.0 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the components of the tourism market, together with the consumer decision making and typology models, in order to explore tourism both from the consumer's and the tourism service provider's perspectives. The tourists typology models, and particularly Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992) model, have practical implications for marketing managers in developing their marketing mix strategies which include;

- strategies related to product or service,
- strategies related to pricing,
- strategies related to distribution and making products available to the customers, and;

- strategies related to communicating with the customers, ie marketing communications.

The relevance of the theories and models discussed in this chapter for the Turkish domestic market are addressed in chapter 6.



## **Chapter 4: Tourism in Turkey**

### **4.0.0 Overview**

#### **4.1.0 A Historical Background to Tourism in Turkey**

#### **4.2.0 Types of Tourism Activity in Turkey**

##### **4.2.1 Inbound (International) Tourism in Turkey**

##### **4.2.2 Outbound Tourism in Turkey**

##### **4.2.3 The Domestic Tourism Market in Turkey**

#### **4.3.0 The Characteristics of Domestic Tourism Activity in Turkey**

##### **4.3.1 The Main Characteristics of People Involved in Domestic Tourism Activity**

##### **4.3.2 The Duration and Timing of Visits**

##### **4.3.3 Organisation of Holidays**

##### **4.3.4 Purposes and Motives**

#### **4.4.0 Conclusion**

*This chapter concentrates on the domestic tourism market in Turkey. The rationale for this chapter is to explore and analyse the domestic tourism market in order to understand the marketing mix strategies: product, price, distribution and marketing communications strategies developed within this market. Tek (1999) argued that marketing communications strategies are very much influenced by the marketing environment, and that the same product or service may require a different set of marketing mix strategies when it is marketed in a different region, country or market.*

#### **4.1.0 A Historical Background to Tourism in Turkey**

Although it is known that Turks were nomads and travelled from Mongolia in central Asia to the shores of the river Danube in the West, the systematic travel activities of Turkish people can be said to have started at around 800 AD, after the acceptance of Islam by Turks (Kozak *et al.*, 1996). Affluent Turks visited holy places in the Middle East such as Mecca and Medina. With the trade developing on the Silk Road, the Turkish Sultans from the Anatolian Seljuks and the Ottomans erected 'kervansaray' s (caravanserais), literally meaning a place for caravans, on the main trade routes and provided services to the traders free of charge (Turan, 1946; Avcioglu, 1971; and Buluc, 1995). However, these caravanserais were mainly for the foreigners, as Turks were not very much involved with trade in those periods, as mentioned in 2.5.

Two centuries after Marco Polo, the famous Turkish traveller Evliya Celebi, travelled extensively in the Middle East, Africa, Asia and Europe between 1640 and 1682. He wrote about his experiences in a ten volume book called *Seyahatname* (Kozak *et al.*, 1996). Although his work included extensive exaggerations about the places and people he visited, it may still be classified as one of the earliest travelogues.

In the regression period of the Ottoman Empire (1683-1922), government officials and military officers were sent to Europe, mainly to France and Germany for education and training. This created an interest in western countries and their cultures within the Empire. During this period, it is known that rich Turks visited holy places in the Middle East and went to thermals in Anatolia, also called Asia Minor, for health cure visits (Buyuk Larousse, 1992).

With the start of the Orient Express railway journeys, towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the first Turkish hotels, in the western sense, were established. These hotels such as Hotel Bristol, Hotel Londra (London) and Pera Palace were mainly situated in the Beyoglu area, which is known as old Istanbul. In 1890 the first law was passed to regulate the travel and tourism activities within the Ottoman Empire (Yarcan and Pekoz, 1998).

Later, in 1923, the first travel agency *Seyyahin Cemiyeti* started to operate. In 1930, Turkish Touring and Automobile Association was opened. In this period, the first road maps of Turkey were drawn, and the first package tours were organised to historical and cultural places in Istanbul and Bursa.

The factors suggested by Kozak *et al.* (1996), in 3.2.1, for the relatively faster development of tourism activity in the world after the Second World War are very much applicable and relevant for Turkey too. These factors are:

- The increase in leisure time and disposable income
- Technological developments in transportation and telecommunications.
- The urbanisation and increase of population.
- The introduction of social security systems.

#### **4.2.0 Types of Tourism Activity in Turkey**

Although this research study is concerned with the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market only, a brief background into the other two generic types of tourism activities may prove to be useful to explain the role of the domestic tourism market in Turkey. It has been already stated that there are three generic types of tourism activities:

- inbound tourism
- outbound tourism, and;
- domestic tourism.

#### **4.2.1 Inbound (International) Tourism in Turkey**

In Turkey, the growth of international tourism has been phenomenal over the past two decades. Between 1980 and 1997, the number of tourists visiting the country increased ten fold, and tourism revenues grew more than twenty-five fold in the same period (Ekonomist, 1998). In 1997, Turkey earned \$ 8.1 billion from 9.7 million international tourists visiting the country, which made Turkey the 18<sup>th</sup> largest tourism revenue earning country in the world (TURSAB, 1999). In the same year, 25.5 million international tourists visited the UK, and tourism revenues reached an equivalent of \$ 20 billion. While the Turkish government spent approximately \$ 62 million dollars on tourism promotion to earn \$ 8.1 billion, the UK spent \$88 million approximately on promotion to earn \$20 billion (WTO, 1999). This means that Turkey earned \$132 dollars for every dollar spent on tourism promotion, while the UK earned \$227 for every dollar spent on tourism promotion. However, countries like the US and Egypt earned \$14275 and \$3760 respectively for every dollar spent on tourism promotion. If Turkey had been able to earn as much as the UK, the tourism revenues of the country would have reached \$ 14 billion. However, there are factors relating to the characteristics of a particular country other than the marketing communications expenditures which may be more influential in the number of tourists visiting these countries.

Tourists visiting Turkey mainly come from Germany, the Commonwealth of Independent States, France, the United Kingdom and the United States, these countries accounting for about 60% of the of the total market (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999). The main destinations visited by these international tourists are the seaside resorts on the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts, and Istanbul for cultural holidays. The seaside resorts account for as much as 72% of all tourists visiting the country (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999). According to a Turkish State Institute of Statistics survey, the main motivation or the pull factors for visiting Turkey by international tourists have been price, followed by an interest in Turkish people and the culture (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999).

According to the WTO, the annual growth of the tourism industry between 1998 and 2020 will be 4.6% in the Eastern Mediterranean region (WTO, 1998) (This region includes Turkey). However, due to various internal and external factors, ranging from the terrorism scare to the intensive competition from countries like Spain, Greece, Portugal and Tunisia, the tourism industry revenues in Turkey actually shrunk dramatically, by 24% in 1998 and 36% in 1999 (WTO, 2000).

In addition to the crisis in the tourism industry, Turkey's most significant industry, textiles, has also been negatively affected due to the loss of competitive advantage that occurred after the Asian economic meltdown. Moreover, the earthquake disaster of August 1999 further influenced the country's economy, as Turkey's industrial Marmara Region, which generates 38.6% of the Gross Domestic Product in Turkey (Turkish State Institute of Statistics, 1997), has been devastated, at least in the short to medium term. As a result of these negative developments, it has become an urgent necessity for Turkey to develop its international and domestic tourism sectors simultaneously.

Turkey, as a developing country, has placed a great emphasis on international tourism, due to the fact that compared with domestic tourists, international tourists;

- spend more,
- stay longer at the destination,

- use more expensive transport and accommodation,
- and bring in foreign currency, which contributes to the country's international balance of payments (Seaton, 1996). In 1998, Turkey's balance of payments deficit reached \$32.7 billion, second largest balance of payments deficit in the world (Turkish State Institute of Statistics, 1998).

In the industrialised countries, tourism has made a major contribution to the diversification of the economy, and helped alleviate regional imbalances. In developing countries, including Turkey, tourism has provided an export opportunity which has been subject to relatively high growth rates and is less constrained (eg greater price flexibility, self determination, and better employment opportunities) than the more traditional forms of export (Fletcher, 1995). Between 1990 and 1998, tourism industry's contribution to the Turkish Gross Domestic Product increased from 2,1 % to 5 %, whilst its share in the country's total exports rose from 24,9% to 32% in the same period, and hence helped reduce the balance of payments deficit of the country (Ekonomist, 1998). Additionally, tourism represents more than 13% of total employment in Turkey (TURSAB, 1999). Moreover, tourism is an attractive industry for investment in developing countries, due to the low capital requirement and the shortness of the realisation period for investments (Williams and Shaw, 1992).

In Chapter 3 when the significance of the tourism industry for a country was mentioned, the multiplier effect created by this industry was specifically acknowledged. The multiplier effect of tourism industry varies from country to country, and from region to region. Fletcher (1995) developed a *tourism multiplier league*, listing the multiplier effects of tourism in terms of income, employment and government revenues in various countries, regions, cities, and tourist islands. In this multiplier league Turkey's multiplier value was found to be the highest (1.96) followed by the UK, the Republic of Ireland and Egypt, with values 1.73, 1.72 and 1.23 respectively. The multiplier effect of tourism expenditures is another reason why Turkey should further develop its international tourism together with its domestic tourism. Whilst domestic tourism does not cause foreign currencies to come into the country, it does certainly have a positive influence on the economy due to the multiplier effect. As a consequence, in Turkey, any positive change, ie an increase in

the tourism revenues and any negative change ie a decrease in the tourism revenues, will have greater implications for the economy of the country.

#### **4.2.2 Outbound Tourism in Turkey**

Compared with both inbound and domestic tourism activities, outbound tourism emerges as a much smaller activity in Turkey. While the numbers of people involved in inbound and domestic tourism have increased steadily over the past years, there does not seem to exist a steady growth pattern in outbound tourism in Turkey, apart from the period between 1983 and 1993. In this period, the growth rate of the sector was 74%, ie on average 7.4% per year. Between 1993 and 1997 the growth of the industry ranged from 3% to 15% per annum (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999). Fluctuations indicate that outbound tourism activity is vulnerable to changes with the level of economic and political stability in the country.

The primary reason for engaging in outbound tourism for Turkish nationals was holidays with 30%, followed by visiting friends and relatives (25%), and cultural visits (15%). The top three destinations for the Turkish outbound tourists are Germany, North Cyprus and the USA (TURSAB, 1999). The high incidence of visits to Germany may be attributable to the to the fact that people visit their friends and relatives who work in Germany. According to the State Institute of Statistics figures, there are more than two million Turks who live and work in Germany. On the other hand, for many Turks visiting North Cyprus, is almost like visiting a domestic destination, as no language and cultural barriers exist between Turkey and North Cyprus. Germany and North Cyprus account for 36% of all outbound tourism activity of the Turkish nationals.

The low level of involvement (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999) in outbound tourism activities of Turkish citizens may be influenced by various factors. Although there does not appear to be any previous research in this area to unveil the reasons for low involvement in outbound tourism, it is believed that the following factors may have been influential:

- Low level of income.
- Difficulties in obtaining visa, especially for the European countries and the USA.
- Lack of a push factor such as climate.
- The unfamiliarity with foreign cultures and cuisines.
- Language problems.

### 4.2.3 The Domestic Tourism Market in Turkey

The domestic tourism market in Turkey has been neglected as a result of growing concentration on international tourism (Kozak *et al.*, 1996). For many years, domestic tourists in Turkey have been seen as a fall back market, a buffer, in periods when there have been problems with international tourism (TURSAB, 1999). Kofteoglu (1998) mentions that domestic tourists were seen as a nuisance and looked down on in many holiday resorts, though they had to pay a lot more than the international tourists. Large international tour operators have been able to bring down prices for their customers due to relatively stronger bargaining power against Turkish incoming tour operators (Yarcan, 1998).

Kofteoglu (1998) and Kozak (1999) argued that the growth of domestic tourism and international tourism are two parallel phenomena, and the development of international tourism is dependent on the development of domestic tourism. Figure 4.1 is supportive of Kofteoglu (1998) and Kozak's (1999) views, and shows that in countries where international tourism is significantly large, the domestic tourism is also significantly large. In Figure 4.1, the domestic tourism figures and international tourism figures of countries, which are at the top of the tourism league, are compared.

	International (I)1 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1994	Domestic (D)1 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1994	International (I)2 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1995	Domestic (D)2 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1995	International (I)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1996	Domestic (D)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1996	International (I)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1997	Domestic (D)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1997	International (I)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1998	Domestic (D)3 Tourism Nights spent (000s) 1998	Population	1994 DI	1995 DI	1996 DI	1997 DI	1998 DI
USA	610000	2010000	595000	2050000	634700	2105000	652100	2163000	654418	2184000	250000000	3.30	3.45	3.32	3.32	3.34
FRANCE	505533	1095430	490877	1080008	459524	1132344	497480	1018261	511856	1030709	57000000	2.17	2.20	2.46	2.05	2.01
UK	191800	416500	220300	449800	221000	461000	222527	473600	224148	475800	58000000	2.17	2.04	2.09	2.13	2.12
ITALY	101005	173748	113001	173494	118024	173374	117716	173062	119122	173600	56000000	1.72	1.54	1.47	1.47	1.46
SPAIN	104156	70677	107807	72536	106658	71612	113270	75012	121012	79936	40000000	0.68	0.67	0.67	0.66	0.66
RUSSIAN FED	39516	*N.A.	63910	*N.A.	102110	*N.A.	107450	*N.A.	108541	*N.A.	147000000					
CANADA	85837	262129	91983	245000	96685	231000	96648	221412	98283	244970	27000000	3.05	2.66	2.39	2.29	2.49
AUSTRALIA	74070	211373	79479	246337	87700	256472	78517	250998	79150	252145	17000000	2.85	3.10	2.92	3.20	3.19
MEXICO	71617	79573	75615	93331	85210	98357	93257	103800	90124	108200	88000000	1.11	1.23	1.15	1.11	1.20
CHINA	38708	160000	42829	176679	47340	195288	53200	196000	57922	196800	1134000000	4.13	4.13	4.13	3.68	3.40
TURKEY	16255	9558	18477	9678	25548	11498	36167	14941	30433	15514	62000000	0.59	0.52	0.45	0.41	0.51

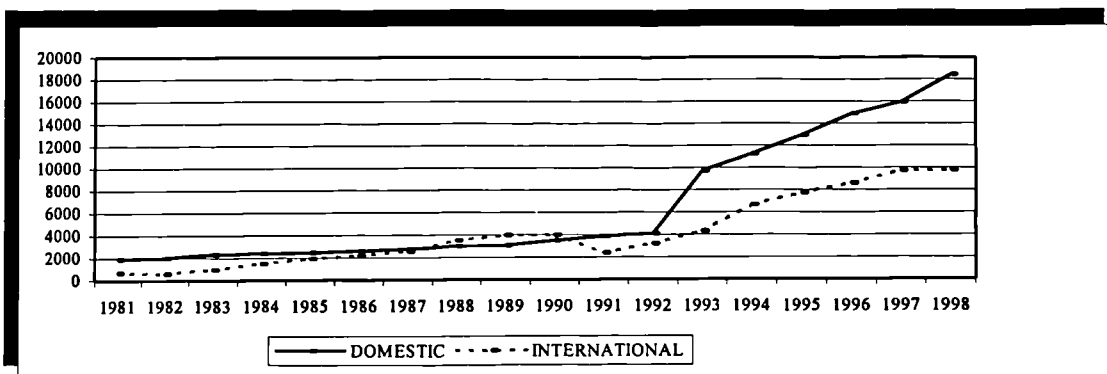
\*N.A. Data Not available

Figure 4.1 International and Domestic Tourism Figures of Various Countries in the World. Source: World Tourism Organisation, Tourism Market Trends, 1999.

For instance, the domestic tourism market in the USA, France and the UK is at least two or three times larger than their international markets. Turkey, between the years of 1994 and 1998, with domestic tourism to international tourism ratios of 0.59, 0.52, 0.45, 0.41 and 0.51, has the smallest domestic tourism market amongst these countries. The domestic tourism to international tourism ratios on the right columns of the figure (D/I) have been adjusted for each country's population to remove the influence of population. The figures would seem to suggest that there is significant potential in Turkey to develop the domestic sector. This in itself provides ample justification for researching the marketing communications activities of domestic travel agencies, with the aim of improving the potential of the sector.

The neglect of domestic tourism also reflects itself in terms of the lack of interest of scholars carrying out research in this area. The findings of Kozak's (1999) research, which concentrated on the research papers and projects carried out in the area of tourism in Turkey between 1992 and 1998, suggest that domestic tourism has been neglected by researchers. Clearly this scholarly vacuum creates some problems for researchers, but also provides many opportunities.

This general neglect of the sector in Turkey may be attributed to the late development of the sector after 1993. The industry grew more than four fold between 1993 and 1999. Graph 4.1 show the growth trend of the domestic industry together with its strength in comparison with international tourism. While the number of international visitors declined in certain periods (eg in 1991, because of the Gulf War), the number of domestic tourists kept steadily rising.



Graph 4.1 The Development of Domestic and International Tourism in Turkey. Source: Ministry of Tourism Statistics Bulletins 1980-1999, Ankara.



The size of the Turkish domestic tourism market reached \$5 billion in 1997, and can no longer be ignored by the firms in the industry (TURSAB, 1999). Considering that the size of the market was only \$1.2 billion in 1993, the growth of the industry has been remarkable. In 1997, 40% of the population engaged in domestic tourism activities, a 10% increase over 1993 figures. In the same period, the average holiday spending per person increased from \$123 to \$ 315 in monetary terms (TURSAB, 1999). According to a WTTC (World Tourism and Travel Council) forecast, between 1998 and 2005, average tourism spending in Turkey will increase by 230%, the highest growth rate in the world (WTTC, 1998).

In addition to the general factors mentioned in 3.2.1 for the development of tourism, the researcher believes that the pollution of Marmara Sea, (which surrounds Istanbul) towards the end of the 1980s, led people to engage in domestic activity away from home. Before the mid-1980s, the Marmara Sea was not contaminated and people went to the seaside resorts around the Marmara Sea for a day or weekend trip.

#### **4.2.3.1 The Main Components of the Domestic Tourism Market in Turkey**

In Chapter three, the five generic components of the tourism market were identified (Middleton, 1998)<sup>1</sup> as:

- travel organisers,
- accommodation providers,
- transportation providers,
- attractions providers, and
- destination organisers

##### **4.2.3.1.1 The Travel Organisers Sector**

In Turkey, the organisation and the structure of the tourism industry differs from other countries in terms of the distribution channels available. Here, instead of a distinction between tour operators and travel agencies, all of the distribution establishments are

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<sup>1</sup> See 3.3 for a detailed discussion of the components tourism market.

called travel agencies, 'seyahat acentaları'. However, these travel agencies are classified into three categories:

- 1      Group A Travel Agencies: These travel agencies are allowed to organise and market domestic and international package holidays. Group A travel agencies are allowed to provide all services.
- 2      Group B Travel Agencies: The activities of Group B travel agencies are confined to ticketing and retailing Group A tours and packages.
- 3      Group C travel Agencies: Group C travel agencies sell the domestic package holidays produced by the group A and B travel agencies.

According to the Law number 1618, which organises the activities of the travel agencies, all of the above three groups are allowed to produce and market domestic holidays in Turkey. Group A and B travel agencies usually concentrate on outbound and inbound tourism, except during periods when there are problems with international tourism. These travel agencies have traditionally served as incoming tour operators or ground handlers for the larger European tour operators (Islamoglu, 1991).

Travel agencies from Group A, B and C all operate in the Turkish domestic tourism market. While travel agencies from groups A and B operate as tour operators, by developing package holidays on a wholesale basis, group C travel agencies sell these package holidays produced by A and B group travel agencies on a commission basis as retailers. Although group A and B travel agencies operate as travel agencies too, by selling package holidays they have developed, the number of outlets they own are not more than a few.

In 1998 and 1999, with the slowdown in international tourism activity, larger Group A travel agencies such as Pasha, Airtour, Jokey and Latin turned their attention to domestic tourism to reduce their losses. However, the domestic market, with too many players in the market, was not sufficient for the larger travel agencies, and two of the largest travel agencies, Jokey and Latin, went bankrupt in 1999. In the light of these financial problems, Eskioglu (1999) foresees structural changes in the tour

organisers' and accommodation provider's sectors. Travel agencies and commercial accommodation establishments are increasingly becoming unable to pay back bank loans and credits resulting in these establishments being taken over by their creditors.. This structural change resembles what the German tourism market went through in the 1980s (Hacioglu, 1996).

Between 1993 and 1999, in line with the growth of the domestic tourism sector, the number of travel agencies in Turkey has increased by 250%, from 1737 to 4315. In the same period, while the number of international tourists visiting Turkey has increased by 44%, the number of domestic tourists has increased by 53%. 32% of the travel agencies are located in Istanbul, from where 80% of domestic tourists originate (TURSAB, 1999). In Turkey, 85% of the registered travel agencies have group A licenses, while group B and C travel agencies account for only 5% 10% respectively<sup>2</sup>. The high volume of group A travel agencies, is attributable to the traditional orientation towards international tourism.

From the viewpoint of operations, the large travel agencies come together with the management of accommodation establishments such as hotels, motels, holiday villages, etc. and make an agreement based on commission. The commission, depending on the size of the travel agency, may range from 10 to 15% of the total price of the holiday, excluding taxes (Hacioglu, 1996; Yarkan, 1998). However, the final prices of the same holidays usually do not vary from one travel agency to another.

The larger travel agencies market their package holidays mainly through newspaper advertisements, though there are concerns in terms of their effectiveness (TURSAB, 1996). Newspaper advertisement costs account for 5% of a package tour price. In 1998, newspaper advertisement spending by travel agencies reached \$ 30 Million (DENİZ REKLAM ETÜDLERİ, 1999). The ten largest travel agencies accounted for two thirds of total advertisement spending in the sector (TURSAB, 1996).

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<sup>2</sup> <http://www.tursab.org.tr/acentalar/html>

The domestic tourism market is dominated by about 8 large travel agencies (TURSAB, 1996). In general, the travel agencies are family owned partnerships or small private limited companies. In terms of ownership, only 9 % of the travel agencies belong to large groups or chains while 91% of the travel agencies are family businesses and partnerships (Kocer, 1998). There are no travel agency companies quoted in the Istanbul Stock Exchange and no travel agency is large enough to take a place in the Top 500 Turkish companies list (INTERMEDYA, 2000). Even the larger travel agencies in the market do not have more than a few outlets of their own (Islamoglu, 1991). Large travel agencies work with local travel agencies on a commission basis to increase their market penetration. The commission received by local travel agencies is usually not more than 5% (Yarcan, 1998). In an economy where traditionally there has been a high level of inflation (as much as 6% a month), local travel agencies are pressed to make a sale to cover their overheads and make a profit. This results in a sales oriented approach and has serious implications for quality and standards.

#### 4.2.3.1.2 Accommodation Providers

In the Turkish domestic tourism market, accommodation costs account for about 12% of the total holiday costs in the organised holidays, and 16% in the independent holidays (TURSAB, 1999). In Turkey, the number of accommodation establishments and their capacities in 1997 are as follows:

	Number of Establishments	%	Number of Beds	%
<b>Accommodation Establishments</b>				
Five Star Hotels	152	4,5	90001	16,9
Four Star Hotels	283	8,5	85631	16,1
Three Star hotels	819	24,5	135388	25,4
Two Star Hotels	1052	31,4	80135	15,1
One Star Hotels	284	8,5	17488	3,3
Special License Hotels	87	2,6	5488	1,0
Float Hotels	5	0,1	1177	0,2
Thermal Hotels	16	0,5	3656	0,7
Apart Hotels	32	1,0	2632	0,5
Motels	68	2,0	3945	0,7
Boarding Houses (B&B)	349	10,4	11640	2,2
Holiday Villages	152	4,5	84695	15,9
Inns	10	0,3	312	0,1
Camping Sites	27	0,8	8030	1,5
Training Establishments	6	0,2	868	0,2
Golfing Establishments	3	0,1	1153	0,2
<b>Total</b>	<b>3345</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>532239</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.1 The Number of Holiday Establishments and Bed Capacity in Turkey in 1997 Source: TURSAB, 1999, Istanbul.

The overall occupancy rate of the above commercial accommodation establishments in 1997 was 54.6%, of which 38.6% of them were international visitors, while domestic tourists accounted for only 16% of the guests (TURSAB, 1999b).

In terms of regional distribution of holiday establishments and beds, the Mediterranean and Aegean regions which mainly cater for summer holidays, account for more than 66% of beds in Turkey (See Table, 4.2).

Regions	No of beds	%*
Mediterranean	190488	35,8
Aegean	163291	30,7
Marmara	108790	20,4
Central Anatolia	40024	7,52
Black Sea	14903	2,8
Estern Anatolia	8037	1,51
South East Anatolia	6706	1,26
<b>Total (Turkey)</b>	<b>532239</b>	<b>100</b>

\*Percentage of beds in the region

Table 4.2 the Number and Percentage of Beds by Region, Source: TURSAB, 1999, Istanbul.

On the other hand, the high numbers and percentages of beds in the Marmara and Central Anatolian regions are attributable to the fact that two largest cities of Turkey, Istanbul and Ankara, are in these regions, and they mainly accommodate people for business.

The use of commercial accommodation establishments, eg hotels and motels etc, increased from 17% in 1993 to 30.1% in 1997. Although the increase between 1993 and 1997 was phenomenal, still about 70% of people use non-commercial accommodation. Among people who do not use commercial accommodation, 58.7% stay with friends and relatives while 24.3% of them stay in their second homes or summer houses (See Table 4.3). However, among people who stay at commercial accommodation establishments on their holidays, hotels and motels account for 40% of accommodation (See Table 4.4)

Non-Commercial Accomodation	%
Staying with friends and relatives	58,7
Second homes/summer houses	24,3
Other	8,3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 4.3 The Use of Non-Commercial Accommodation in Turkey, Source: Yurtiçi Seyahat Pazarı Araştırması, TURSAB, Istanbul, June 1999, pp 34-36.

	%	%
Commercial Accommodation	1993	1997
Hotels and Motels	32,1	40
Bed and Breakfast (Pension)	25	18,5
Rented house or flats	7	10,7
Holiday villages	4	7,6
Holiday Camps	14	7,6
Time-share accommodation	N/A	4,6
Other	17	11

Table 4.4 The Use of Commercial Accommodation Establishments in Turkey, Source: Yurtiçi Seyahat Pazarı Araştırması, TURSAB, June 1999, pp 34-36.

It appears that, while staying at hotels and motels, rented house and flats, holiday villages and time shares increased between 1993 and 1997, staying at relatively cheaper commercial accommodation establishments such as guest houses (bed and breakfast/pension establishments) and holiday camps declined considerably. This would appear to reflect the general increase in per capita disposable income.

The ownership structure of the accommodation providers in Turkey is similar to the travel organisers' sector. The majority of the establishments (73.2%) are individually owned, ie not owned by large groups or chains (Kocer, 1996). However, Kocer (1996) also notes that, through mergers and acquisitions, integration within the accommodation providers' sector is increasing, with large industrial holdings and banks getting into the sector.

Although second homes and summer houses account for 24.3 % of non-commercial accommodation, mainly in the Mediterranean and Aegean regions, Duzgun and Karabulut (1999) noted that there has been a growing disenchantment with these places, and many people are trying to sell their second homes.

#### 4.2.3.1.3 Transportation Providers

In the Turkish domestic tourism sector, transportation costs account for 22% of the holiday cost of holiday incurred by tourists in the independent holidays, and 11% of the total costs in the organised package tours.

The distribution of the forms of transport used by Turkish domestic tourists in 1993 and in 1997 were as follows:

	1993	1997
Form of Transport	%	%
Coaches/Buses	58,4	72,2
Own Car	41,2	21
Air Transport	2,9	3,4
Sea Transport	1,5	2,1
Railway Transport	4,8	2,8
Other	..	1,5

Table 4.5 The Transportation Methods used by Domestic Tourists in Turkey. Source: Yurtici Seyahat Pazari Arastirmasi, TURSAB, Istanbul, June 1999, pp 34-36.

In Turkey, the most common form of transport used for going on a holiday appears to be buses and coaches followed by tourists' using their own cars. The increase in the use of buses and coaches from 58.4% to 72.2% between 1993 and 1997 show the increase in the number of holidays organised by travel agencies.

For comparison reasons, the forms of transport used by UK domestic tourists can be provided here. For instance, in the UK domestic tourism market, British citizens mainly use their own car (80%) when going on a holiday. Compared with the UK, the low level of car ownership in Turkey (6%) (Capital, 1999) is influential in the determination of the method of transport. The reasons for the low level of use of sea and railway transport in Turkey may be attributed to the lack of modernisation in these forms of transportation, which means lower levels of comfort and speed for the travellers.

#### 4.2.3.1.4 Attractions Sector

As explained in 3.3.0, this sector includes theme parks, museums and galleries, national parks, wildlife parks, gardens, heritage sites and centres, sports and activity centres (Middleton, 1998). The relevance of these attractions to the Turkish domestic tourism sector may be seen as limited, due to the nature of domestic tourism activity in Turkey as will be explained in 4.3.3. On the other hand, beaches and seaside resorts are definitely attractions, which act as pull factors in convincing tourists to visit a country or a region.

Additionally, with the overall world trend moving from General Interest Tourism

(GIT) to Special Interest Tourism (SIT) (Culligan, 1992; Brotherton and Himmetoglu, 1997; and Krippendorf, 1987a, b), the significance of the attractions sector can be expected to increase in the Turkish domestic tourism market too.

#### **4.2.3.1.5 Destination Organisers**

These are National Tourist Offices (NTOs), Regional Tourist Offices, Local Tourist Offices and Tourist Associations. In general NTOs are responsible for marketing countries as destinations, and Regional and Local Tourists Offices are responsible for marketing regions and resorts within a country (Middleton 1998). While in the UK, Regional and Local Tourist Offices engage with information provision and promotion activities both for the inbound tourists and domestic tourists, in Turkey the role of these organisations in practice is somewhat different. Here, these regional and local tourist offices, set up by the Ministry of Tourism, serve mainly the inbound tourists in terms of providing information. They also inspect regional and local accommodation providers and travel organisers. However, tourism organisations such as TURSAB (Turkish Travel Agencies Association) and TUROB (Turkish Hotels Association) serve both the inbound and domestic tourists in the form of providing information and handling complaints (Kozak *et al.*, 1996).

#### **4.3.0 The Characteristics of Domestic Tourism Activity in Turkey**

So far, domestic tourism in Turkey has been analysed from the viewpoint of the suppliers of tourism service, ie travel organisers, accommodation providers, transportation providers, attractions sector and destination organisers.

As discussed in 2.1, the consumers and their needs and requirements play a central role in the implementation of the marketing concept. A study such as this one, concentrating on the role and potential of marketing communications in a particular sector, requires an analysis of the consumers, in terms of their needs, motives, requirements and general characteristics. This section focuses on the characteristics of people involved in domestic tourism activity, their motives, and when and how they go on a holiday.



#### 4.3.1 The Main Characteristics of People Involved in Domestic Tourism Activity

Families with children represent as much as 76% of the whole domestic tourism market in Turkey (Capital, 1999). The involvement of families in tourism activities may be expected to increase further in the future, as a result of decreasing family sizes over the past few decades, as pointed out by Dibb *et al.*, (1994) and (Goodall, 1988) in 2.1.2. Between 1968 and 1998, while the number of households increased in Turkey, reaching 15 million (Seckin, 1999), the average size of households decreased from 5.5 persons to 3 –3.5 people (Seckin, 1999).

Due to the fact that the main market segment in Turkish domestic tourism is families, Turkish travel agencies serving the domestic tourism market tend to discriminate against individual holiday makers. For example, individual tourists are not able to benefit from *some of the standard sales promotion* offers, and they end up paying extra for some of the services included in the standard package price (Arman, 1998).

Compared with Turkey, in the UK, families supply 59% of the market in outbound holidays and 66% of the market in short domestic holidays. The incidence of taking children on holiday with the family increases in domestic holidays (ETB, 1994).

Geographically, Istanbul, as the biggest metropolitan city with a population of 12 million, supplies the main market for domestic tourism (State Institute of Statistics, 1998). When other major cities such as Izmir, Ankara, Bursa and Kocaeli are included, it could be estimated that people from urbanised areas constitute almost all of the domestic tourism demand. In 1997, 65% of the Turkish population lived in urbanised areas, in other words, more than 40 million people (TUSIAD, 1999). Considering that in 1950 the urban population was only 25% of the total population, the increase in urbanisation has been phenomenal. It is estimated that the urban population will be 72% of the whole population in Turkey in 2020, thus providing a greater potential for both domestic and outbound tourism (TUSIAD, 1999).

According to the Turkish State Institute of Statistics research, there is a link between urbanisation and spending patterns. While people living in urbanised areas allocated 27% of their disposable income for food, people living in non-urban areas allocated as

much as 41% of their disposable income for food. This would mean that people living in urbanised areas spend lower amounts of their income for satisfying their lower level needs (Maslow, 1954), and hence have a greater opportunity to satisfy their higher level needs including leisure. It may then be suggested that, based on the urban population forecast above, leisure spending in Turkey will increase. A comparative study of European and Turkish tourists visiting North Cyprus by Yavuz *et al.* (1998) showed that almost all of the Turkish tourists visiting North Cyprus came from urbanised areas, while 78% of the Europeans came from urbanised metropolitan areas.

When domestic tourists are analysed from the viewpoint of their level of education, it appears that university graduates and people with high school diplomas appear to account for 47% of the market (TURSAB, 1999). Though the incidence of people with standard primary school education<sup>3</sup> engaging in domestic tourism activity went down from 45% to 28% between 1993 and 1997, they still represent about a quarter of the market which may be attributed to high social mobility in Turkey (Esmer, 1999).

However, people with higher levels of education, for instance, university and high school graduates, tend to spend more on their holidays (TURSAB, 1999). Additionally, people with higher levels of education have a higher propensity to use the services of travel agencies (Berksoy, 1994).

In Turkey, both the rate of literacy and the ratio of university graduates to the whole population has increased over the past four decades. In 1950-1951 while 69.5% of people went to primary schools, in 1996-1997 this increased to 97%. Again in 1950-1951 while only 1.3% of people in Turkey studied at universities, in 1996-1997 24.9% of high school graduates went on to study at universities (TUSIAD, 1999). The increase in the level of education may be expected to result in an increase in domestic tourism activity and an increase in the use of the services of travel agencies.

Berksoy's study (1994) also found a strong positive correlation between the level of

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<sup>3</sup> Traditionally the compulsory primary school education in Turkey used to be five years. In 1998 with a change of law it was increased to eight years.

income, travel propensity and travel agency use in Turkey. The findings of the Turkish Travel Agencies Association survey (TURSAB, 1999) are supportive of Berksoy's (1994). According to this survey, 40% of people who engage in domestic tourism activity in Turkey have an annual income of \$10 000 and above. While on average the Gross National Product (GNP) per person is \$3100 in nominal terms, the purchasing power parity per capita income in Turkey is \$6140 (Turkish State Institute of Statistics, 1998). Additionally, due to the problems in the distribution of income in the country, there are about 3.5 million people whose annual income is in the region of \$23 000. In Turkey, while the poorest 10% of the population receive 1.8% of total GDP, the richest 10% of the population receive 40.5% of total GDP (TURSAB, 1999). In European countries, for instance, the UK, the distribution of income is much more equal with the poorest 10% receiving 3.2% of total GDP and the richest 10% receiving 26% of the GDP. In Turkey, large urban cities such as Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Bursa, Edirne with High Human Development Index Scores<sup>4</sup> (UNITED NATIONS, 1998) account for almost all of the domestic tourists (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999).

Although Turkey came 74<sup>th</sup> in the World Human Development Index (UNITED NATIONS, 1998) in 1997, the figures for the most developed 12 cities in Turkey are much higher. With their human development index scores ranging from 0.859 to 0.783, these cities would have become between the 58<sup>th</sup> and 48<sup>th</sup> in the world development index league. Countries which were amongst the top 20 in the world human development index with scores ranging from 0.960 to 0.923, seem to have a higher propensity to engage in tourism activities, both domestic and outbound (Duzgunoglu and Karabulut, 1999).

Another factor influencing the high involvement in tourism activity by people living in urbanised areas is that, although paid employees who are entitled to annual paid leave constitute only 42% of the working population in Turkey, they are mainly concentrated in urban areas (TUSIAD, 1999).

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<sup>4</sup> World Human Development Reports are published by the United Nations since 1990. The Human Development Index is a figure which expresses the development standard of a society (a country, or a region) based on the following criteria: *Health*: average life expectancy at birth; *knowledge*: adult literacy and average number of school years; *standard of living*: purchasing power of gross domestic product as calculated per individual.

Families can also be mentioned as a major source of income for the Turkish tourism establishments, due to the high number of marriages in the country. For example, according to the Turkish State Institute of Statistics figures, in 1997 more than six hundred thousand couples married in Turkey. A great majority of these marriages took place between the months of April and October peaking in August, with more than forty five thousand marriages. According to a consumer survey (Capital, 1999). 11% of the married couples go for a honeymoon in Turkey. Teinowitz's (1993) study in the USA found that on average, honeymooners spend 20% more than other holiday makers and they often become loyal future customers. If Teinowitz's (1993) findings hold true for Turkish couples, it would have positive implications for travel agencies, accommodation establishments, etc.

Finally, in Turkey as the family supplies the majority of the market for domestic tourism (76%) (CAPITAL, 1999), this would suggest that any research on domestic tourism and marketing communications should have a clear focus on understanding the dynamics of family roles and gender in decision making. The role of women in family vacation decision making and information processing has been noted by many researchers like Consenza and Davis (1981); Nichols and Snepenger (1988); and Fodness (1992). Shaw *et al.* (1995) and Philipp's (1998) research concluded that gender has a powerful role in shaping adolescent leisure preferences and in the development of leisure participation patterns. Gender differences and information processing which have been discussed in Chapter 2, constitute central themes of this research study.

#### **4.3.2 The Duration and Timing of Visits**

According to the 1997 Tourism Household Survey carried out by Turkish Ministry of Tourism in 21 cities, 100 towns and with the involvement of 18218 households, the average nights spent at the destination by domestic tourists was 19.3. In 1993, the average nights spent at the destination was 17.5. The duration of domestic holidays appear to be extremely high, which may raise questions regarding the objectivity and the validity of these surveys carried out by Turkish Ministry of Tourism. However, the longevity of holidays can be explained by the fact that these holidays represent the main holidays of domestic tourists.

On the other hand, for instance, the UK domestic holiday market is characterised by short breaks of one to three nights stays, on average 2.1 days (Smith, 1996). Domestic holidays for British people represent a second or a third holiday alongside their main holidays abroad (Smith, 1996). However, for a majority of Turks (95%), domestic holiday is their main annual holiday (TURSAB, 1999). The longevity of the stays in the Turkish domestic tourism market may be attributable to the distance between the holiday resorts and the metropolitan cities, which account for almost all of domestic tourism (TURSAB, 1999). 85% of all holidays in domestic tourism are sun and sea holidays, spent at seaside resorts on the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts of Turkey. The distance, for example, between Istanbul and the resorts on the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts can be as much as a thousand kilometres or more which would justify longer stays.

Turkish domestic tourism is highly seasonal. 86% of holidays take place between the months of April and October, with July and August being the highest with 27% and 24% respectively (TURSAB, 1999). This seasonality is very much linked to the school summer holidays (between mid-June and mid-September), as the market is mainly families with young children. Compared with Turkey, in the UK, domestic holidays are more or less evenly spread, except in the summer months when British engage in outbound tourism (Smith, 1996).

Apart from the summer time, Turkish citizens, especially the ones living in urban areas, engage in domestic tourism activities during the official paid holidays.

These official Turkish holidays are:

- the Ramadan (three and a half days);
- the Sacrifice (four and a half days),
- the Republic Day (one and a half days, 28<sup>th</sup> October half a day and 29<sup>th</sup> October is a full day holiday)
- New Year Holiday (one and a half days, 31<sup>st</sup> December half a day and 1<sup>st</sup> January a full day holiday)
- The Youth and Sports Day (19<sup>th</sup> May).
- The Victory Day (30<sup>th</sup> August).

However, one drawback of the religious holidays of the Ramadan and the Sacrifice, which are the longest, is that date wise they are not fixed. In other words, as the Islamic calendar is a lunar calendar, these holidays come forward eleven days each year, causing difficulties for tourism industry planners. For instance, if the Ramadan holiday starts on the 15<sup>th</sup> of a particular month of a particular year, the following year it would take place on the 4<sup>th</sup> of that particular month. If these holidays happen to be on weekdays, permission is issued by the Prime Minister to make it a whole week holiday. In these instances, Turkish citizens may have a combined holiday of as much as nine days including both the weekend days at the beginning and at the end of the religious holidays. In those years when these holidays take place in the summer months, tourism activity increases (Ministry of Tourism Statistics Bulletins 1980-1998). In the year 2000 these religious holidays took place in January and March. For Turkish citizens to have a Ramadan holiday, for instance, in August, a period of almost fifteen years needs to elapse.

#### **4.3.3 Organisation of Holidays**

It was mentioned in 3.4 that the use of the services of professional business organisations such as tour operators and travel agencies by consumers seems to be related to the level of perceived risk that they may feel in purchasing a particular holiday. According to a Turkish Travel Agencies Association survey, about 15% of domestic holidays are booked through travel agencies (TURSAB, 1999). Considering that in 1993 this ratio was only 2%, the use of travel agencies has increased remarkably over the past few years. As mentioned earlier on, Berksoy (1994) and Islamoglu's (1995) research concluded that there was a positive relationship between travel agency use, level of income and the level of education of customers.

In 3.3.1 it was stated that one of the reasons for the low travel agency involvement in the UK was that customers preferred booking quite late, and discounting in short-breaks was unusual. In the Turkish domestic tourism market, customers also book quite late, the average being not more than a week before the holiday (Capital, 1999). However, travel agencies in Turkey use a number sales promotion methods rather than discounting and competing on price (Arman, 1998).

The use of travel agencies increases in outbound holidays, as is the case in the UK and European outbound tourism (TURSAB, 1998a). According to Yavuz *et al.*'s (1998) research, 60% of Turkish citizens having a holiday in North Cyprus use the services of a travel agency. This is relatively high, especially considering the fact that North Cyprus may be perceived as a domestic destination by many tourists due to its proximity, common language and culture, and the fact that Turkish citizens are allowed to visit North Cyprus without a passport.

#### **4.3.4 Purposes and Motives**

According to the Turkish Association of Travel Agencies research, more than 80% of domestic tourism activity is characterised by sun and sea type of tourism, with the main push factors being rest, tranquillity, relaxation, safety, followed by fun (TEMPO, 1999).

Rest and relaxation are not common characteristics of Turkish families alone. For instance, in the USA, Lee and Norman's (1996) research on tourism behaviour and attitudes in different family life cycles, concluded that young married couples with children are particularly interested in rest and relaxation. On the other hand, young singles were mostly action orientated.

In Turkish domestic tourism activity, the push factors of rest and relaxation result in most of the holiday time being spent by domestic tourists at the accommodation establishment, by the pool or on the beach. In Yavuz *et al.*'s (1998) research, more or less the same push factors were cited, with the fun factor tending to be more significant. This may be attributable to the fact that the majority of Turkish people (57%) who visit North Cyprus are singles, in contrast to domestic tourism in Turkey, with a majority of tourists (86%) taking their holidays with their families.

The motives of Turkish domestic tourists, and the relevance and the transferability of the tourist typology models discussed in 3.4, for Turkish domestic tourists, are examined in chapter 6 of this thesis in the light of the findings.

#### **4.4.0 Conclusion**

This chapter has focused on the characteristics of the Turkish domestic tourism market, both from the viewpoint of supply, ie tourism product/service providers, and demand ie domestic tourists. It informs and is informed by the literature search in chapters 2 and 3. It has particularly focused on the main characteristics of domestic tourism activity with a special emphasis on the characteristics, purposes and motives of people involved in domestic tourism activity, the duration and timing of visits and organisation of holidays. By doing this, the context and the framework of the research, both from the marketing communications and tourism have been outlined, in preparation for the necessary primary research.



## **Chapter 5: Research Methodology**

### **5.0.0 General Overview**

#### **5.0.1 The Research Problem and the Rationale of the Research Study**

#### **5.0.2 The Research Methodology**

#### **5.0.3 The Research Plan**

#### **5.0.4 Objectivity, Validity and Generalizability in Qualitative Research**

#### **5.0.5 Quantification in Qualitative Research**

#### **5.0.6 Review of Related Research**

#### **5.1.0 Selection of Data Collection Techniques**

##### **5.1.1 Stage I: Exploratory Interviews with Tourists**

##### **5.1.2 Stage II: Key Informant Interviews**

##### **5.1.3 Stage III: Observations**

##### **5.1.4 Stage IV: Focus Groups**

##### **5.1.5 Stage V: Final Interviews with Consumers**

##### **5.1.6 Conclusion**

*This chapter seeks to explain the rationale underpinning the methodological approach adopted by the researcher in order to address the key research questions. It emphasises the extent to which contextual factors have been influential in determining the methodology and the methods techniques used.*

### **5.0.1 The Research Problem and the Rationale of the Research Study**

The research topic, “the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market”, was formulated to satisfy not only rigorous academic requirements, but also to meet the needs and requirements of tourism management practitioners. The researcher firmly believes that this research meets the criteria of good research in terms of *usefulness or value* outlined by Lowe (1999). Thus, the audience of this research is not only academics, but also marketing practitioners.

### **Key Questions**

The main research problem was outlined by reference to a number of key primary questions:

- iii) The desire to produce practical guidelines for practitioners and advance knowledge in this field.

At the start of the research study, the touchpapers that fuelled the initial academic interest were as follows;

- Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), which questioned the validity of cognitive elements of marketing communications for products or services which are designed to fulfil emotional and hedonic needs.
- Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991), which was about gender differences in the information processing of marketing communications and;
- Fodness (1992), which was about family roles in holiday decision making and;
- Darley *et al.* (1995) and Yavuz *et al.* (1997), which opened up some of the established literature and journal sources on characteristics of target audience and information search behaviour.

Additionally, *family decision-making* and *gender differences* in decision making were common buzzwords at the start of the research in academic publications outside of Turkey. The tourist decision making process has received continuous interest from academics and marketing practitioners, as developing effective marketing strategies is dependent on getting to know the customers, in terms of their characteristics and how they make their purchase decisions.

### **Importance of Research**

Lowe (1999) stated that researchers should ask themselves: ‘Why does it matter?’ to ensure that the research project is a worthwhile one. The consideration of each of the essential components of the research problem seemed to be *important*. They were envisaged to make a valuable contribution to the knowledge of *academics* and *practitioners*. The components of the research problem were believed to be *original* in scope, and they were expected to advance knowledge in the field both from the

viewpoint of academics and practitioners. Therefore, the research appeared to meet the criteria of '*relevance*' – one of the key criteria that Hammersley (1992) recognised in order to judge research.

Rubin and Rubin (1995) stressed the need for a topic to be important:

'You don't want to get done with your research and then find out that no one is interested in what you found but yourself. As part of doing a design, you should ask yourself, why is this topic important? To whom would it be important? How could the results be used? What are the broader concerns of which this research is a part?'

Each of the questions raised by Rubin and Rubin (1995) could reasonably be answered positively in terms of the research problem that was posed.

Furthermore, the research was considered to be important due to;

- a) the lack of previous research in the field. (This is explained under the heading of 5.0.2 i), where the researcher discusses the underpinning research methodology from the viewpoint of a lack of previous research in the field).
- b) the size of the market which reached \$ 5 billion in 1997, with advertising spending of \$ 30 million (TURSAB, 1999). Compared with the inbound tourism revenue figure of \$ 8.1 million in 1997 (TURSAB, 1999), the size of the domestic tourism market indicates that it has grown into a significant market for businesses operating in this market and policy makers. This research, which concentrates on the role and potential of marketing communications and explores the consumer decision making process, is expected to be of major interest both for business firms and the policy makers.

Additionally, by exploring the role and potential of marketing communications and the consumer decision making process, this research is expected to produce knowledge that will help to determine whether marketing communications expenditures are justified and how improvements can be made, if any.

- c) the increasing intensity of competition created by new players coming into the market (including the increased attention given to the domestic tourism market by travel agencies operating mainly in the inbound and outbound tourism markets), and the integration taking place in the domestic tourism market. In an industry where business firms already suffer from low margins (Yarcan, 1994; and Middleton, 1998), the survival and the success of business firms has become increasingly dependent on creating value for the consumers through developing effective marketing strategies and establishing competitive advantage, rather than competing on a price alone basis.

Coupled with the drastic decline in international tourism receipts in 1998 (24%) and 1999 (36%) in Turkey (WTO, 2000), the relative importance of domestic tourism for business firms operating in the market and policy makers increased. Due to the significant level of the multiplier effect of tourism in Turkey, which was found to be one of the highest in the world (Fletcher, 1995), a decrease in international tourism meant a decline in economic growth for the country at national and regional levels. Thus, the ability of increasing in revenues in domestic tourism to close the gap created by the decrease of revenues in international tourism should mean that domestic tourism will become a major area of interest for policy makers. However, the growth of domestic tourism is very much dependent on the success of individual firms in the market developing effective marketing strategies through creating value for consumers.

Finally, it is believed that research on family and gender roles is important as females are still largely excluded from social research (Eichler, 1988; Bailey, 1994) for various reasons ranging from bias to lack of precedents and model simplification (Bailey, 1994).

### **5.0.2 The Research Methodology**

Bailey (1994) distinguished between a method and methodology by describing method as simply the research technique used to gather data and, methodology as the philosophy of the research process. Therefore, methodology can be said to include the

assumptions and values that serve as a rationale for the research and the standards or criteria used for interpreting data and reaching conclusions.

The choice of methodology may vary from one researcher to another, based on the characteristics of the research and the researcher. For instance, while physical scientists tend to state the relationships between variables in exact terms, usually in the form of mathematical equations, social scientists tend to be satisfied with being able to prove the existence of a relationship between the variables, while saying nothing much about the nature of the relationship (Bailey, 1994).

The establishment of an appropriate research methodology or philosophy was one of the most significant considerations for the researcher, as it more or less dictated the determination of the following (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995):

- i) overall research plan
- ii) data collection methods
- iii) data analysis and interpretation methods.

The following figure (Figure 5.1) developed by Veal (1997), based on Williamson *et al.*'s (1982) framework, not only shows the differences between the two broad approaches to research methodology, but also explains how an approach or philosophy adopted may dictate the determination of the overall research plan, together with data collection and methods of analysis to be used in the research:

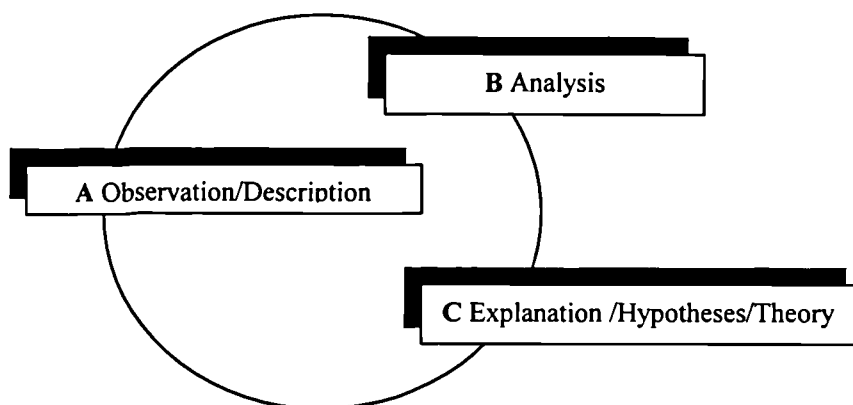


Figure 5.1 The Differences between Inductive and Deductive Approaches to Research – Adapted from Veal, A.J. (1997) *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism*, Financial Times Leisure Management Series, Institute for Leisure and Amenity Management, London, pp.29.

## 1 Inductive Approach

The researcher starts at:

- point A, by observing and describing the intended study of the research;
- proceeds to B, for the purposes of *analysis*, and
- arrives at point C, with the aim of offering an explanation or hypothesis or theory.

Inductive research is also known as *qualitative research* and *phenomenological research* (Lowe, 1999). Lowe (1999: pp480 in Kitchen) explained that the basic assumption which underlines inductive research is that “theoretical explanations of the world we live in can be best achieved by seeking to explain social phenomena which already exist in abundance around us”. The main emphasis of inductive research is on translating, decoding, interpreting and explaining, rather than measuring the frequency of instances occurring. Therefore, qualitative research can be used to increase knowledge, clarify issues, define problems, formulate hypotheses and generate ideas (Day, 1998).

## 2 Deductive Approach

The researcher starts at:

- point C, with a *hypothesis*;
- proceeds to point A, for observing and describing the intended study with the purpose of gathering data to test the hypothesis, and then
- proceeds to point B, for the purpose of *analysis*, to test the hypothesis against the data.

Deductive research, then, adopts the researcher’s own agenda as the point of departure and seeks to prove or disapprove a hypothesis (Lowe, 1999).

The researcher adopted the inductive approach, a phenomenological paradigm, as

opposed to the deductive approach, ie a positivist paradigm, based on the main characteristics of these two approaches and their relevancy for this particular research. Being aware of the strengths and weaknesses of each methodology, the researcher recognised the point of Silverman (1993: 2) that “methodologies cannot be true or false, only more or less useful”.

In order to be able to judge the extent to which an approach was useful, the main characteristics of these two approaches and the differences between them had to be clearly laid out. The following figure (Figure 5.2) summarises the main features of both the inductive and deductive approaches from the viewpoint of basic beliefs, the researcher’s role and the preferred methods:

	<b>Positivist Paradigm</b>	<b>Phenomenological Paradigm</b>
<b>Basic beliefs:</b>	<p>The world is external and objective</p> <p>Observer is independent</p> <p>Science is value-free.</p>	<p>The world is socially constructed and subjective</p> <p>Observer is part of what is observed.</p> <p>Science is driven by human interests.</p>
<b>Researchers should:</b>	<p>Focus on facts</p> <p>Look for causality and fundamental laws</p> <p>Reduce phenomena to simplest elements</p> <p>Formulate hypothesis and the test them</p>	<p>Focus on meanings</p> <p>Try to understand what is happening.</p> <p>Look at the totality of each situation.</p> <p>Develop ideas through induction from data</p>
<b>Preferred methods include:</b>	<p>Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured.</p> <p>Taking large samples</p>	<p>Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena.</p> <p>Small samples investigated in depth over time</p>

Figure 5.2 Key features of positivist and phenomenological paradigms. Source: Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., and Lowe, A. (1995) *Management Research; An Introduction*, Sage, London.

Based on the above figure, the following reasons for the adoption of the inductive approach to methodology became apparent:

- i) The lack of sufficient previous research in the field.
- ii) The nature of this particular research; both from the viewpoint of tourism as a service and marketing communications and consumer decision-making behaviour.

#### **5.0.2.1 The Lack of Sufficient Previous Research and Knowledge in the Field**

Although travel agencies emerge as one of the top three information sources used by tourists in general (Duke and Persia, 1993; Mihalik *et al.* 1995), there was an overall dearth of publications internationally on travel agencies. When reviewing the tourism literature (Oppermann, 1999; Ritchie, 1966; Kendall and Booms, 1989) observed that:

“... surprisingly little research has been reported on travel agencies. In particular, little evidence is available on how the consumer perceives travel agencies, makes retail choices, or responds to communications in this sector of the industry”.

As mentioned in 5.0.2, the deductive method starts with a hypothesis, while the inductive method starts with observation and description. In order to formulate a hypothesis, it is desirable to have a body of previous knowledge, understanding and validated research. In the absence of this, the researcher felt that it was more appropriate to adopt the inductive approach to methodology.

The survival and success of a firm depends on the successful implementation of marketing concept, the areas pointed out by Kendall and Booms (1989) (ie how consumers perceive a product or service provider, how consumers make their purchase decisions and how consumers respond to marketing communications), have central importance.

Therefore, it may be argued that Kendal and Booms’ (1989) research refers to both a lack of previous knowledge in the field, and the importance and relevance of this research arising from this lack of previous knowledge. The research methodology had to be based on these two realities.

Research which was carried out by Yaman and Shaw (1998), almost ten years later



than Kendal and Booms' (1989), pointed out the same weaknesses of the service providers' in the tourism industry, namely a lack of previous research. This again convinced the researcher that the research topic was both important and relevant and that he had to adopt an appropriate methodology. Yaman and Shaw's (1998) comparative analysis of marketing research in tourism and in other industries in the USA, based on the American Marketing Association (AMA) Research 1993 and their tourism research in 1993, concluded that in marketing research activities of tourism organisations, promotion/marketing communications were largely overlooked in the USA. Yaman and Shaw (1998) classified 38 types of research activities of about 700 organisations (300 being tourism and 400 non-tourism organisations). Promotion/marketing communications and segmentation as research activities scored extremely low, 37<sup>th</sup> and 30<sup>th</sup> respectively, whilst pricing and cost related research activities ranked at the top of the activities in the two research studies. This may reflect a product, production and sales orientation to management, rather than a marketing orientation (See 2.1). When the findings of the two above research studies were compared with 400 AMA members from industries other than tourism, it appeared that tourism organisations tended to conduct pricing research more often than AMA members, while both sets of respondents reported low levels of promotional research (Yaman and Shaw 1998).

The two research studies mentioned above, Kendall and Booms' (1989) and Yaman and Shaw's (1998) not only showed the need for this type of a research from an *international perspective*, but also pointed to the lack of previous research in the field from the viewpoint of adopting an appropriate methodology in this context. Moreover, the researcher felt that the need for this type of research in Turkey, where the tourism industry was in its infancy and the research tradition was not yet comparable with that of the western countries, was urgent. It should also be pointed out that there is only one refereed tourism journal in Turkey, and the number of professors whose main research area is tourism is only twelve (Icoz, 1999). This situation should be juxtaposed against the fact that Turkey is the 18<sup>th</sup> largest tourism revenue earning country in the world (TURSAB, 1999), and that there are 70 universities in a country populated by approximately 65 million people (Economist, 1999). In the absence of any significant previous research, the inductive approach was deemed to be more appropriate.

Additionally, Kozak's (1999) research findings in Turkey can be put forward to support the argument about the lack of previous research in the field. In his extensive research, Kozak (1999) concluded that there is a dearth of publications on travel agencies, with only 3% of tourism research articles and postgraduate dissertations and theses having been written on travel agencies. Kozak's (1999) research does not mention domestic tourism, this area has been virtually overlooked.

In the light of the above, the adoption of the inductive approach to methodology became a necessity arising from a lack of previous research rather than a free choice. The researcher was not in a position to start the research with any clearly preconceived set of hypotheses and theories to test, ie to adopt a positivist approach. The researcher had to expend a great deal of energy and effort in order to familiarise himself with the market by obtaining and analysing the primary knowledge in the area of domestic tourism, (which would be readily available in, for instance, the UK, USA, Australia, and etc., where tourism is more developed). However, the researcher rather than seeing this as a major difficulty in carrying out the research, recognised this lack of previous research as a major opportunity to discover and understand this infant industry.

#### **5.0.2.2 The Nature of Research and the Research Methodology**

As this research involves an interdisciplinary study of tourism and marketing communications, the adoption of the inductive approach to methodology from the viewpoint of research can be discussed under the following headings:

- The adoption of inductive approach from the tourism research perspective
- The adoption of inductive research from the marketing communications research perspective

##### **The adoption of inductive approach -Tourism research perspective**

In Chapter 3, a tourism product is described as a performance (Baker, 1981), ie a tourism product is an experiential product due to its characteristics of intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability. However, Kelly (1980), who studied

the research methods of the 1960s and 1970s, argued that the qualitative methods, and hence the inductive approach, had been neglected in the field of tourism studies during the 1960s and 1970s, although they were more appropriate. Riley and Love (1996) also stated that this period in research was characterised by heavy and prolonged quantification with a bias towards positivist approach. Kelly (1980), after reviewing the research methods and methodologies used in tourism, suggested the following advantages of qualitative methods of research over quantitative methods:

- The method corresponds with the nature of the phenomenon being studied-that is, tourism as an activity is a qualitative experience. Additionally, tourism itself involves a great deal of face-to-face interaction between people-involving symbols and gestures-and qualitative research is well suited to investigating this. The researcher felt that an understanding of the consumer decision making process, and consumers' response to various types of marketing communications initiatives could not have been achieved thoroughly through quantitative methods. Exploring how tourists made their holiday decisions and their response to particular marketing communication messages, required face to face interactions with all the people concerned. The qualitative method 'brings people back in' to tourism and leisure research. By contrast, quantitative methods tend to be very impersonal – *real* people with names and unique personalities do not feature. Veal (1997) drew attention to the dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative research:

'the qualitative approach to research involves gathering a great deal of information about a small number of people, while the quantitative approach involves gathering a limited amount of information about a large number of people'

The opinions, feelings, beliefs and thoughts of each individual were valuable as the researcher was interested in understanding, rather than generalising, and hence, the contribution of each participant was very important. On the other hand, the totality of the responses would have mattered much more in quantitative research, where the purpose was primarily to test hypotheses.

- The results of qualitative research are more understandable to people who are not statistically trained. It was felt that providing results which could only be

understood by statistically trained practitioners would have created an added difficulty in this infant Turkish domestic tourism industry.

- The qualitative method is better able to encompass personal change over time. The dynamic nature of consumers' responses to tourism product and services suggests that this method is better suited to capturing the subtle shifts of attitudes, perceptions and behaviour of consumers over time. On the other hand, much quantitative research tends to look only at *current* behaviour as related to *current* social, economic and environmental circumstances, ignoring the fact that most people's behaviour is heavily influenced by their life history and experience.
- Qualitative rather than quantitative techniques are better at providing an understanding of people's needs and aspirations, although some researchers in the psychological field in particular may disagree with Kelly (1980) by pointing out the *weaknesses* of qualitative inquiry in terms of its reliability and validity, together with the fact that it does not lend itself to generalisations.

Gilmore and Carson's (1996) views were supportive of Kelly's (1980), as they argued that the inductive paradigm and qualitative research methods were very well suited to services. Their argument was based on the following features of research into services:

- descriptive data,
- experiential knowledge and understanding of the researcher,
- the interpretive analysis of data and
- the holistic context of data collection and analysis of qualitative methods.

Thus, conceiving tourism in subjective or psychological terms has resulted in the growing awareness and use of qualitative research methods (Henderson, 1990; Kelly, 1980; and Godbey and Scott, 1990).

Cohen (1988) maintained that much of the seminal work in tourism was initiated through qualitative research. Cohen (1988: 29-30) recognised that "whilst sociologists of tourism had given the qualitative approach scant consideration, the most significant

and lasting contributions also have been made by researchers who employed an often loose qualitative methodology".

Riley and Love (1996) noted that many qualitative tourism articles were published in non-tourism journals. However, Riley and Love (1996) suggest that publishing outside the existing tourism journals may have been due to the lack of outlets receptive to qualitative research and an increasing emphasis on describing the field in other ways. Recently, some researchers have begun to question the use of quantitative research, as it cannot fully address questions of understanding meaning, (Riley and Love 1996) and processes (Peterson, 1994).

Riley and Love's (1996) research, based on Denzin and Lincoln's (1994) conceptual continuum of qualitative research, concluded that journals such as the Journal of Travel Research, the Annals of Tourism Research, Tourism Management, and the Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing publish few qualitative articles.

#### **The adoption of inductive research - Marketing communications research perspective**

So far, it has been explained why the researcher chose the inductive paradigm and the use of qualitative techniques from the viewpoint of tourism as a service. However, as this research primarily entails marketing communications and consumer decision-making behaviour, the researcher also needs to establish the reasons as to why the qualitative approach is appropriate in these areas.

Peterson's (1994) suggestions about the appropriate fields for conducting qualitative research can be mentioned here to support the choice of methodology and the methods for this research. In fact, two of the appropriate fields for conducting qualitative research suggested by Peterson (1994) a) consumer decision-making process, and b) marketing communications form the basis of this research study.

##### **a) Consumer decision making process**

Peterson (1994) argued that questionnaire surveys were not good at exploring *processes* and hence would not be appropriate for understanding *how* a buying

decision made.

This research is primarily concerned with how tourists make their holiday decisions, especially against a given marketing communications stimuli.

Therefore, the use of qualitative methods can be considered to be more appropriate to understand how tourists go through various stages and *processes* before making their final holiday decisions and why.

#### b) Marketing communications

Again as this research is concerned with the role and potential of marketing communications, the use of qualitative methods can be considered as more conducive to understanding how marketing communications are received by the target audience and why.

Another researcher is Hirschman (1986), whose reasoning can be mentioned to support the choice of the methodology, and its appropriateness for the context of this research. Hirschman (1986) argued that the key factors in marketing are essentially *socially constructed*, ie human beliefs, attitudes, behaviours, perceptions and values. Therefore, he suggests that it is essential to employ research methods drawn from this perspective, such as observation and qualitative interviews, focus group studies, etc in social constructionist marketing research. One of the distinct styles in phenomenological approach is the case of ethnography (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1994), in which the ethnographer/researcher sets out to show how social action in one world makes sense from the point of view of another (Agar, 1986). The ethnographic style of research is not a technique but an approach drawing on a variety of techniques. Here researchers immerse themselves in a setting, and become a part of the group under study in order to understand the meanings and significances that people put upon their own behaviour and that of others.

However, academics within the marketing field have still shown a strong preference for survey research methods, which are aimed at predicting, often statistically, behaviour amongst consumers and clients (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995). The researcher adopted the phenomenological paradigm (social constructionism) against

the positivist paradigm due to its focus on meanings rather than facts, and the emphasis on causality and fundamental laws. Van Maanen (1983:9) defined qualitative methods as “an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world’. Therefore, it was felt that the adoption of an inductive approach and the use of qualitative methods would have helped ensure *plausibility* (Cahill, 1998), rather than *generalizability*.

As stated earlier on this researcher is concerned with establishing a relationship between newspaper advertisements, as a form of marketing communication stimuli in influencing attitudes of the potential customers. Ideally, the researcher would have preferred to be in a position to research the relationship between various advertising messages and the actual *purchase behaviour* rather than the *attitudes*. However, in practical terms this could only have been achieved through the use of these advertisements by the travel agencies. The researcher was not able to convince the travel agencies contacted to use the designed advertisements in their promotion. In future, based on the findings of this research, travel agencies might be persuaded to use these advertisements, which may then lead to firmer outcomes regarding purchase behaviour.

Nonetheless, the researcher is pleased that at least in one stage of the primary research, through observations, he was able to observe the actual behaviour of consumers rather than their attitudes.

### **5.0.3 The Research Plan**

It was stated in 5.0.2 above that the research methodology approach adopted determined the overall research plan. The researcher felt the dominant influence of the inductive approach at each stage of the primary research. In order to familiarise himself with the research process, the researcher reviewed a number of models of research plans developed by various authors including Kiddler (1981), Howard and Sharp (1983), Kelsey and Gray (1986), Pizam (1987) and Ryan (1995). For instance, Pizam (1987) divided the *tourism research* investigation into seven sequential stages:

- 1 Formulation of the research problem
- 2 Review of related research
- 3 Definition of concepts, variables, and hypotheses
- 4 Selection of research design – exploratory, descriptive, explanatory or causal.
- 5 Selection of data collection techniques.
- 6 Selection of subjects.
- 7 Planning of data processing and analysis.

Similar to Pizam's (1987) Veal (1997) offered an eight-stage sequential research process.

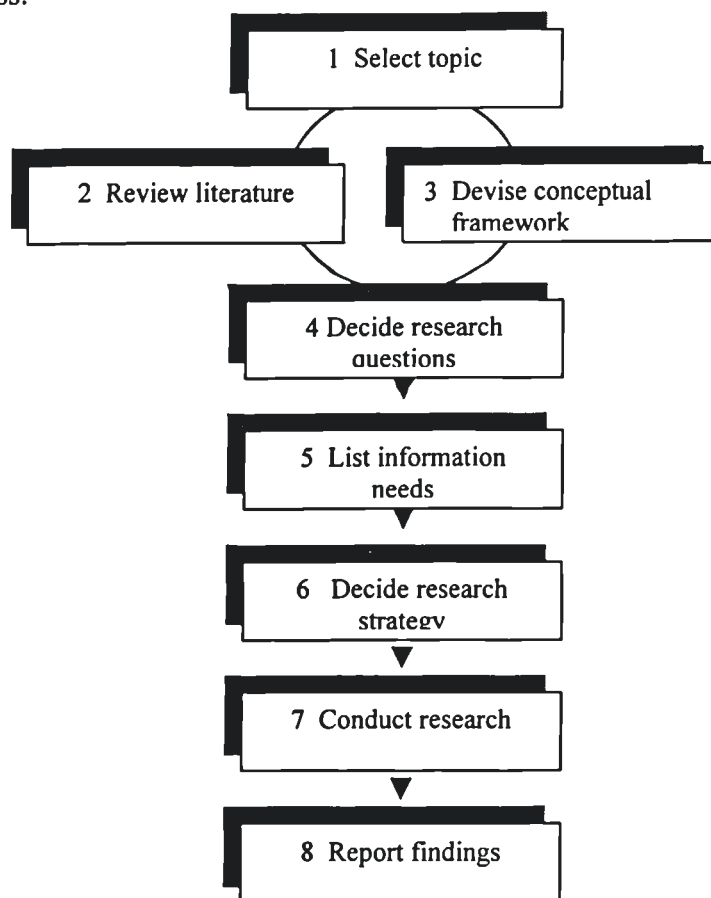


Figure 5.3 Elements of research process. Source: Veal, A.J. (1998) *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism. A Practical Guide*, Financial Times Leisure Management Series, London: Institute for Leisure and Tourism Management.

As the two above processes suggested, the researcher did not start the research with any clearly preconceived set of hypotheses and theories to test. Although the approaches suggested by Pizam (1987) and Veal (1998) are appropriate for inductive research in tourism, the researcher felt that they were overly simplistic, as they saw the research as a sequential and linear process. It was felt that by this researcher that the actual process was more like the iterative process suggested in Williamson *et al.*'s



(1982) model (see Figure 5.1), with each stage of research being followed by an analysis which then provided feedback about the previous stages of research, and helped establish the following stages. The iterative nature of the research process ensured a degree of flexibility (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995) which was required for this type of a research.

The actual progress of the research through time and a summary of key events is as follows:

Dates	Work Completed
Jan 1997-April 2000	General marketing literature review (Continuous throughout the entire research study)
March 1998-April 2000	Literature review in tourism and leisure (Continuous throughout the entire research study)
June 1998-April 2000	Literature review in marketing communications (Continuous throughout the entire research study)
June 1998-August 1998	Exploratory interviews with tourists
February 1999 - February 1999	Key informant interviews
May 1999-May 1999	Observations at travel agencies.
May 1999-May 1999	Focus group studies with tourists
June 1999-June 1999	Final Interviews with tourists
June 1999-January 2000	Data analysis
March 1999 - June 2000	Conclusions and reflections
March 1999 - July 2000	Draft and final versions of the thesis

Figure 5.4 The Research Plan

#### 5.0.4 Objectivity, Validity and Generalizability in Qualitative Research

Without a doubt, the most significant challenge posed to researchers is the necessity to demonstrate, both to themselves and the world at large, that their research satisfies the fundamental characteristics of objectivity, validity and generalizability. For a failure to prove that the research is objective and valid will surely nullify the whole research, its process and its findings.

The term objectivity or, as it is often referred to 'validity', has generally been attached to the quantitative research tradition (Johnson, 1997). While some researchers (eg. Smith, 1984) suggest that the traditional quantitative criteria of reliability and validity are not relevant to qualitative research, others including Lincoln and Guba (1985), Kirk and Miller (1986), LeCompte and Preissle (1993), and Maxwell (1996) took the view that validity was one of the most important aspects which made qualitative research *superior* to quantitative research. The researchers in the latter group refer to

validity as the plausibility, credibility, trustworthiness and hence defensibility of the research.

Johnson (1997) pointed out that one of the most important threats to validity in

qualitative research is the possibility of researcher bias, ie the lack of objectivity, and warned that researchers had the potential to end up with what they wanted to find out. Objectivity in the research process is an area of debate particularly in the methodology of social research (Kirk and Miller, 1986; Silverman, 1999). The term 'objectivity' embraces many overlapping concepts such as validity, reliability, replicability and representativeness, and different authors use the terms in ways that overlap in meaning. In effect, these concepts can be separated into two concerns relating to:

- i) the validity of the research process (usually termed reliability and internal validity).
- ii) the validity of the findings (usually termed external validity, representativeness and replicability).

However, from a practical viewpoint to explain the strategies adopted for establishing objectivity and validity, the concept of validity will be analysed under the following headings (Johnson, 1997):

- Descriptive Validity
- Interpretive Validity
- Theoretical validity
- Internal Validity
- External Validity

In 5.0.2 when the researcher explained why he adopted the use of an inductive approach and qualitative methods in this research, he emphasised the lack of previous research in the field together with the nature of research. The use of a variety of data

collection methods, apart from serving these two afore mentioned purposes, had one additional purpose – to reduce threats to validity through triangulation.

#### **5.0.4.1 Descriptive Validity**

Description is a major objective in almost all qualitative and exploratory research (Johnson, 1997). Hence, ascertaining descriptive validity is one of the important issues in a qualitative research study such as this one. Johnson (1997) suggests that asking the following two fundamental questions may help the researcher establish the descriptive validity in her/his research:

- Did what is reported (by the researcher) actually take place in the individuals and/or groups studied?
- Did the researcher accurately report what s/he heard and saw?

Kirk and Miller (1986) and LeCompte and Preissle (1993) suggested *investigator triangulation* as an effective strategy for ensuring descriptive validity. Investigator triangulation involves the use of multiple investigators for cross checking the data collected. This approach, therefore, requires a number of different researchers to collect data on the same issue and cross-checking to see whether they what they collected and how they describe it is similar.

Although in many ways investigator triangulation has indisputable benefits, and should certainly help to throw light on the validity of a researcher's description of a problem or a situation, there are also logistical limitations to the approach. In addition to simply finding appropriate people for the task, one has the difficult task of persuading them of its value to them. Thus, it was felt that the advantages of this approach did not warrant the time and expense, and that additional strategies would serve to protect and enhance the descriptive validity of this research. These are as follows:

##### **i) Recording**

- Where appropriate the researcher used videotaping, as in the case of

focus groups. The researcher believes that this significantly reduced the descriptive bias as information collected was videotaped and the process, thus recorded, can be revisited, not only by the researcher, but also by others,

- In other stages of the research, where videotaping was not possible, the researcher discussed the field notes with the people involved, immediately after collecting data, to ensure the accuracy of the data collected - a strategy known as ‘member checking’ (See 5.0.4.2).

## ii) Discussions

- The researcher discussed the data collected with experts in the industry including people working in the industry, academics and the ministry of tourism officials.

### **5.0.4.2 Interpretive Validity**

While descriptive validity refers to accuracy in reporting the facts, interpretive validity refers to accurately explaining and interpreting the meaning attached by participants to what is being studied by the researcher (Johnson, 1997). It relies on effective decoding of the participants’ messages in terms of viewpoints, thoughts, beliefs, intentions and experiences. This requires an understanding of the participants’ inner worlds (ie. their phenomenological worlds) by the researcher (Johnson, 1997). To do this the researcher needs to act with empathy and understand participants’ perspectives.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested a strategy called “member checking” to increase interpretive validity. This “member checking” strategy refers to sharing interpretations with participants, to clear up any areas of miscommunication. This strategy was used to ensure interpretive validity. Immediately after transcripts of the interview notes were sent to participants for their comments to make sure that what was recorded reflected their true feelings, beliefs and thoughts. Additionally, the researcher sent copies of his interpretations and evaluations of the respondents’

findings, asking for any comments they might have. Where necessary, he had further discussions with participants and also with experts on the industry not only to record data accurately but also to refine participants' true feelings, thoughts. This was needed to be done as it is almost impossible to draw a distinction between the collection of data and its analysis and interpretation in qualitative and social constructionist research (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995). In other words, data analysis in qualitative research may be said to refer to both analysis and interpretation. However, the process of arriving at conclusions (analysis) and the output of these conclusions (interpretation) can be conceptualised as separate processes even though they are performed simultaneously with each informing the other (Caterall and Maclaran, 1998).

Data analysis, from the viewpoint of arriving at conclusions, involves a number of analytical approaches such as organising and reorganising the data by themes or topics, annotating text and displaying the data in ways to help the researcher to identify patterns and grasp what is in the data (Tesch, 1990). On the other hand, it is not easy to describe interpretation in terms of the operations and tasks employed - it is more subtle than that. Wolcott (1994) uses a word association approach to distinguish between analysis (cautious, structured, formal, bounded, scientific, systematic, methodical) and interpretation (freewheeling, casual, unbounded, holistic, impassioned and systemic).

Although individual researchers may differ in the balance they strike between analysis and interpretation, [see Griggs (1989) for analysis based approach and Evans (1987) for an interpretation based approach], the researcher feels that a balance of analysis and interpretation was needed for both descriptive and interpretive validity of the research.

#### **5.0.4.3 Theoretical Validity**

Johnson (1997) explained *theory* in a qualitative study as discussions of how a phenomenon operated and why it operated as it did. In other words, theoretical validity can be explained as the extent to which a theoretical explanation developed from research, fits the data findings, and is therefore credible and defensible.

Theory development moves beyond the description of facts and provides an explanation of the phenomenon studied. Several strategies have been suggested by various researchers including Denzin (1989), Maxwell (1992) and Kirk and Miller (1998) to increase theoretical validity. Denzin (1989) suggested that a strategy called “theory triangulation” which involves examining how the phenomenon being studied might be explained by different theories. The researcher attempted to explain the phenomenon through theories developed by various researchers. Some of them are; tourist typology theories [Cohen (1972), Plog (1974), Perreault *et al.* (1977), Westlvaams Ekonomisch Studiebureau (1986), Dalen (1989), American Express (1989), Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) and Culligan (1992)]; family roles, gender and information processing theories [Consenza and Davis (1981), Nichols and Snepenger (1988), Fodness (1992), Burstein *et al.* (1980), Deaux and Kite (1987), Meyers-Levy, 1989 and 1994), Bakan (1966), DePaulo (1979), Holbrook (1986), Aranson 1972, Sistrunk and McDavid (1971), Eagley (1978), Aranson (1972), Holbrook and Batra (1987), Batra and Ray (1986), Gardner (1985), Lutz *et al.* (1983), Moore and Hutchinson (1983), Park and Young (1986), Shimp (1981), Shimp and Yokun (1982), Edell and Burke (1987), Darley *et al.* (1995)]; elaboration theories [(Chaiken and Stangor, (1987), Pechman and Stewart (1989), Petty and Cacioppo (1986), Manfredo and Bright (1990)]; attitude formation theories [(Peter and Olson (1996), Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995), Allen and Madden (1985), Shimp (1991), Zajonc *et al.* (1982), Kroeber-Riel (1979), Ajzen (1991), Ajzen and Fishbeins (1977 and 1980), Barthes (1977), Foucault (1979), Mick (1992)]. These theories provided insights to develop a more cogent explanation of the phenomenon studied.

Among other strategies for improving theoretical validity is the extension of fieldwork. This involves having to collect data in the field over an extended period of time. During this period peer review can be used to ensure that the theory developed from the research makes sense in the light of the data findings. This researcher spent more than two years collecting data and used various methods of data collection for cross-checking in addition to extensively consulting people who had in-depth knowledge of the industry.

#### 5.0.4.4 Internal Validity

The fourth type of validity which needs be ascertained is *internal validity* which refers to the extent to which a researcher is justified in concluding that an observed relationship is *causal* (Cook and Campbell, 1979).

However, unlike quantitative research, qualitative research does not often involve cause and effect relationships as explained in 5.0.2. On the other hand, qualitative research can be very helpful in describing how phenomena operate and in developing and testing preliminary causal hypotheses and theories (Campbell, 1979; Johnson, 1994; LeCompte and Preissle, 1993; Strauss, 1995).

Based on the interpretation of data collected in the initial stages of the research, the researcher became interested in finding a cause and effect relationship in the later stages of research, in order to be able understand and describe the holiday decision making process and the role of marketing communications within this decision making process.

However, offering a causal relationship is not straightforward and easy. It is necessary to ensure that the observed change in the dependent variable is due to the independent variable and not to something else (Johnson, 1997). As stated above, due to the nature of this qualitative research, the researcher did not set out to determine or test a causal relationship as he was interested in *exploring* and *understanding* the holiday decision making process.

Denzin (1989), Maxwell (1992) and Kirk and Miller (1998) also suggest triangulation strategy for ensuring internal validity. In other words, a variety of data collection techniques and research methods should be employed. However, the logic is to combine different methods that have “nonoverlapping weaknesses and strengths” (Brewer and Hunter, 1989). Thus, the researcher held in-depth interviews with tourists and industry experts. Focus groups and observations were also used. In this way

internal validity has been ensured. (For a fuller treatment of data collection techniques and research methods see 5.1.0)<sup>1</sup>.

#### 5.0.4.5 External Validity

External validity is about the extent to which research findings are generalizable to *other people, settings, and times* (Cook and Campbell, 1979), ie the reliability, replicability and representativeness of research findings. This explanation reflects the viewpoint of natural scientists and positivists. In natural sciences, if experimental conditions are properly controlled, a repetition of an experiment should produce identical results and hence, as they are replicable, they are considered as reliable. However, this is rarely the case in social sciences, as they deal with human beings in ever-changing social situations and it is difficult to determine the variables in exact terms. An example from this research can be provided regarding the present classification of Turkish domestic tourists. As discussed in chapter 4, Turkish domestic tourists fall into the Sun Lover (SNL), Organised Mass Tourists (OMT), Independent Mass Tourists (IMP) and Family Oriented Sun and Sea Lovers or Psychocentrics. However, another researcher five years later might well discover that the market has developed and the consumers fall into different categories like Escapists (ESC) or Drifter (DTR), for example. This would reflect the ever-changing social environment and in turn diminishes the efficacy of external validity.

This researcher was interested more in the *authenticity* (Silverman, 1999) of the research rather than the reliability. In order to produce authentic research, the scope was made as wide as possible, and polarisation was avoided.

From a quantitative research methodology perspective, in order for findings to be reliable, replicable and generalizable, the whole process of sample selection must be aimed at minimising bias through a process called *random sampling* (Veal, 1997). However, as the purpose was to understand the thoughts, beliefs and attitudes of people in depth, rather than making generalisations, the process of sampling was not seen as a central issue based on the following arguments.

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<sup>1</sup> See also 5.1.5 for an extended discussion of interpretive and descriptive validity from the viewpoint of the applicability of 'projective techniques' in this research.



Goetze and LeCompte (1984) and Patton (1987) argued that, while the probability based sampling provided advantages in terms of the representativeness of findings, non-probability sampling methods, such as purposive, judgemental sampling methods, were more *useful* in investigating people and situations in depth, and explaining and discovering social interactions. As mentioned in 5.0.2 above, the extent of the usefulness of a methodology was a more relevant discussion than whether the methodology was right or wrong (Silverman, 1993).

Rather than dismissing external validity in terms of generalizability, Johnson (1997) described the viewpoint of qualitative researchers as follows:

“First, the people and settings examined in qualitative research are rarely randomly selected, and random selection is the best way to generalise from a sample to a population. As a result, qualitative research is virtually always weak in the form of population validity focused on “generalising to populations”. Second, some qualitative researchers are more interested in documenting particularistic findings than universalistic findings. In other words, in certain forms of qualitative research the goal is to show what is unique about a certain group of people, or a certain event, rather than generate findings that are broadly applicable. At a fundamental level, many qualitative researchers do not believe in the presence of general laws or universal laws.”

Yildirim and Simsek (1999) argued that to apply random sampling, ie providing all members of population an equal chance of inclusion in the sample, first the population needed to be identified in exact terms which is, in many cases, impossible. Additionally, as Glassner Loughlin (1987) pointed out, people’s cultural worlds are more complex than most positivists might have thought. Therefore, subjects or participants chosen in random sampling may not be homogeneous to the extent desired (Goetz and Lecompte, 1984; Yildirim and Simsek, 1999).

Based on the arguments presented above, a purposive and/or convenience based sampling method rather than probability sampling was adopted.

Stake (1990) argued that it is possible to make a defensible generalisation to other people, settings and times to the extent that they are similar to people, settings and research in the original study. Stake (1990) called this generalisation based on

similarity, *naturalistic generalisation*.

The researcher believed that to some extent the findings of this research were generalizable on the basis that a greater proportion of domestic holidays take place in summer months and there are common socio-demographic characteristics of the holiday-makers.

The researcher agrees with Johnson (1997) in terms of his statement about the generalizability in qualitative research. He said that the researcher in a qualitative research should provide the following information to the reader to show the extent to which findings are generalizable, if at all:

- the number and kinds of people in the study.
- how they were selected to be in the study.
- contextual information, the nature of the researcher's relationship with the participants.
- information about any informants who provided information.
- the methods of data collection used and the data analysis techniques used.

For a more detailed information of the above please refer to section 5.1.0.

### **5.0.5 Quantification in Qualitative Research**

Apart from the appropriateness of the sampling methods used, the use of the following strategies helped ensure the reliability of the findings and hence their objectivity in representing the unbiased thoughts, feelings, beliefs and attitudes of participants to an acceptable extent:

- The use of a variety of interlinked data collection methods.
- The involvement of a significant number of participants in almost every stage of data collection.

- The use of quantification in data analysis.
- at all times a standardised approach to interviews etc, was adopted.

The issue of quantification will be discussed, as the rest of the three above strategies were discussed earlier.

As Kirk and Miller (1996: 10) pointed out, 'qualitative research does not imply a commitment to innumeracy' and they refuted the claim that sociologists should not dirty their hands with numbers (Silverman, 1999:162).

Silverman (1999) argued that the quantification or counting of qualitative data could be incorporated into qualitative research. This could both conceal as well as reveal social processes and thus enable the researcher to see whether the two sets of data corroborate or not. Apart from Silverman (1993 and 1999), various researchers including Weber (1985), Goetze and LeCompte (1984), McTavish and Pirro (1990), Tutty *et al.* (1996) and Yildirim and Simsek (1999) considered the use of numbers and quantification of data in qualitative research, and concluded that, when used appropriately, numbers can help qualitative researchers in data analysis. For instance, the use of percentages of frequencies of occurrence may help the researcher and also the reader to see better why a particular reason was given by some respondents. In the final interviews where the number of responses allowed, the researcher resorted to quantification through calculating frequencies of occurrences, and the mode and the median, going through the process suggested by Weber (1985). Additionally, through the use of a quantitative significance testing method (Chi-Square Test -  $\chi^2$ ) the significance of the relationship between gender and choice of advertisements and reason for choosing advertisements by interviewees were tested.

Weber (1985) and later Yildirim and Simsek (1999) explained the process of how qualitative data can be quantified through calculating percentages and frequencies:

- Identify the units of analysis (words, sentences, or overall meaning).

As at this stage the researcher was not committed to the counting of data, he could

only estimate that the unit of analysis would be the overall meaning of the responses.

- Identification of themes and categories

At this stage the researcher was not in a position to identify the common themes, if any, in the responses of the participants as he had not started the data analysis in a systematic manner. However, as the researcher analysed the findings immediately after each stage he was aware of the existence of some common themes and categories.

- The testing of coding on sample data

No pre-coding was done, as the researcher was unable to predict what sort of responses he would get. On the other hand, although it was not done until the final data analysis stage in the research, some of the questions in the interviews and focus groups relating to socio-demographic characteristics of participants were coded, without significant difficulty.

- Comparing the results of coding with pre-identified themes and categories.
- The testing of themes and categories with another set of sample data.
- The coding of all data and calculation of percentages.

#### **5.0.6 Review of Related Research**

The review of related research is one of the early activities in the exploration and investigation of a topic or a field and it needs to be explained both in terms of its extent and its content.

Literature review, rather than enabling the researcher to discover a hypothesis quickly, as suggested by Churchill (1995), helped throughout the duration of the research and

fulfilled the following functions suggested by Veal (1997:43):

- It provided the basis of the research.
- It acted as source of ideas on topics for the research.
- It provided information on research already done by others.
- It served as a source of methodological and theoretical ideas.
- It offered a basis for comparisons.
- It supplied information that is an integral/supportive part of the research

Hyman (1972) listed the benefits which may accrue from secondary research analysis as follows:

- Savings of time and money by the use of available data rather than collection of original new data. (It prevents one from reinventing the wheel).
- Less invasion of privacy by using existing data rather than collecting new data.
- Ease of making comparative analyses (for example, comparing different countries through the secondary analysis of data collected in respective countries).

Hyman's (1972) reference to these benefits should not be taken to mean that secondary research can replace other methods. In this study, the inadequacy of secondary sources would not have allowed progress beyond the exploration of the field.

The literature review covered the following disciplines and fields in order to form a basis for the exploration of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism sector:

- Marketing : Consumer behaviour, marketing communications. Marketing of services and holiday products.
- Tourism: Tourism economics. The tourism industry structure. Tourism demand

and supply. Tourist behaviour, tourist typologies and the marketing of tourism products.

- Psychology: Behaviour, attitudes and beliefs. Interpersonal and mass communication. Gender differences in information processing.

In the absence of relevant local research in the above fields, an extensive international literature search was carried out. The applicability and the relevance of the internationally developed theories to the Turkish domestic tourism market is open to debate. The culture convergence and culture divergence debate has not been concluded by the proponents on either side. For instance, Levitt (1983) states that economies, organisations, and markets are becoming more and more homogeneous. Arguments that support the convergence hypothesis are based either on the contention that some normative systems of economic structure, organisational design, managerial, and marketing processes are universally superior or that they are technologically indispensable (Pizam, 1999). The proponents of this hypothesis argue that convergence is a process induced by industrialisation, which is based on science and technology, two *supranational* processes, which are independent of governmental forms and national cultures (Pizam, 1999). Researchers supporting the convergence hypothesis argue that “individuals, irrespective of culture are forced to adopt industrial attitudes such as nationalism, secularism, and mechanical time concerns in order to comply with the imperative of industrialisation (Okechuku and Yee, 1991). Pizam (1993) argues that there is a worldwide diffusion of industrial technology from developed to developing nations through trade, imitation, economic aid and military channels. Consequently, customers have similar preferences, regardless of their cultures or nationalities, and companies, instead of looking for differences, should look for commonalities (Levitt, 1983; Ohmae, 1989).

On the other hand, research supporting the culture divergence hypothesis argues that the convergence of consumer behaviour across countries is just a myth (Douglas and Wind, 1987) and divergence remains both in the demand and in the supply of services. The effect of national characteristics on consumer behaviour has been investigated in numerous studies by researchers including Boote (1993), Onkvisit and Shaw (1987), Grunert (1990). For instance, while Grunert (1990) found several

significant cross cultural variations in consumer values in Germany, the United States, Norway and Canada, Boote (1983) found both similarities and differences in consumer values in the United Kingdom, Germany and France.

It is the view of this researcher that the debate of culture convergence and divergence should not prevent the use of international research in documentary study. For instance, tourist typologies and tourist behaviour models, developed in various countries, can be used in Turkey as a *starting point* and a *framework* in the search for empirical evidence. These theories and models do have value for applied research in the Turkish context, especially in the absence of indigenous research, and it is the job of each researcher to check the validity and relevance of these models in their own research.

For instance Yavuz *et al.*'s (1998) comparative research on tourists typologies of European and Turkish visitors to North Cyprus, which will be discussed later in this chapter, can be shown as a successful example of the application of the typology models in a number of countries and cultures.

### **5.1.0 Selection of Data Collection Techniques**

The research plan presented in 5.0.4 describes the various stages of this research. However, the selection of data collection methods needs to be explained in terms of their selection, implementation and the interrelationships between the various methods of data collection.

In order to be able to investigate the research questions in-depth, the following data collection methods/techniques were used:

- i) Initial and exploratory interviews with tourists
- ii) Key informant interviews
- iii) Observations
- iv) Focus group studies
- v) Final interviews with tourists

Three main reasons for the selection of an inductive approach and the use of above data collection methods, were provided to explain the research methodology and underpinning philosophy (See 5.0.3), together with the objectivity of the research (See 5.0.6). These reasons were:

- A lack of previous research

This necessitated the adoption of an inductive approach to methodology together with the use of a number of exploratory data collection methods including exploratory interviews with tourists, key informant interviews and observations.

- The nature of the research

Based on the fact that tourism was an experiential product and involved social interactions between people, data collection methods were needed to take these characteristics into account. For this reason in-depth interviews, focus group studies and observations were used to discover the social interactions between people.

- Objectivity

In 5.0.6 the use of triangulation to ensure the objectivity and hence the validity of this research was explained.

These above mentioned reasons for the selection of data collection methods were from the viewpoint of research methodology. However, it is believed that the reasons for the selection of each method and the relationships between the methods and the linkages from a practical viewpoint are also needed to be explained.

**Exploratory interviews** with tourists were designed to explore the holiday decision making process and the role of marketing communications stimuli in the decision making process of families. As the researcher did not have any preconceived hypotheses, the scope of investigation was left broad. It did not start from an



evaluative perspective, in the light of the literature search carried out earlier on, the researcher was curious to see whether models, typologies and theories developed in western societies were relevant in the Turkish context. However, it must be stated that, although previous research carried out by international authors was found to be useful, it did not influence the objectivity of research, as the researcher's primary objective was to explore and understand, not to compare.

**Key informant interviews** were aimed at exploring the other side of the coin, ie the suppliers, after having being equipped with the basic understanding of holiday decision making from the demand viewpoint. Although interviews with tourists were primarily designed to explore the issues relevant to this research from the demand side, they were also planned to serve as a mechanism to compare data collected from both the demand and supply side to check whether they corroborated or not.

**The observation stage** of the primary research was important not only in the sense that it would extend the exploration in the field, but also because it would give an opportunity to compare and check the two previous stages of the research, and see the interaction between the consumers and the travel agency personnel. This stage of the research was also important, as this time, rather than *attitudes*, the researcher would have an opportunity to find out about the *actual behaviour* of tourists.

**The focus group studies** were primarily aimed at finding out the reasons behind the attitudes (exploratory interviews) and behaviours (observations) - why they did things in a particular manner and/or why they said they would do things in a particular manner. As the researcher had also planned to interview a larger group in the final stage of the research, he was interested to see how they responded to particular marketing communications and why.

**In the final stage of the research**, the researcher was still interested in the exploration of the holiday decision-making process and the role of marketing communications. This time, as the size of the sample was large, it was believed that the findings would have some representativeness. Additionally, some other factors, which may be influential in the holiday decision making process, would emerge for consideration.

Finally, it has to be emphasised that, apart from the reasons mentioned in 5.0.3 and 5.0.6, there were clearly practical and logical reasons for the selection, design and the triangulation of data collection methods (as mentioned in sections 5.0.2 and 5.0.4).

#### **5.1.1 Stage I: Exploratory Interviews with Tourists**

The exploratory interviews were carried out in July 1998, with ten couples between the ages of 21 and 45, with children up to the age of 15, staying at the following commercial accommodation establishments for their summer holidays; Florium Resort Hotel in Ayvalik (on the Aegean Coast), Agaoglu in Bodrum (on the Aegean coast) and Simena Holiday Village in Kemer (on the Mediterranean Coast). All of the couples had been on a package tour at least once.

Participants in this stage were selected from the accommodation establishments' guest lists on a random sampling basis by choosing one in every five couples who had the characteristics mentioned above.

In this first stage of the primary research, the focus was on *familiarisation* with the broad research topic of marketing communications in the domestic tourism market. The major emphasis of the interviews, as in any exploratory research, was on eliciting information (Moser and Kalton (1971), the discovery of ideas and tentative explanations of the phenomenon. There was no attempt to show which explanation was *the* explanation (Churchill, 1995).

Burgess (1982:107) refers the importance of interviews as '(the interview) is the opportunity for the researcher to probe deeply to uncover new clues, open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate inclusive accounts that are based on personal experience'.

The reasons for choosing the in-depth interview method, a method which requires extensive and careful preparation, much patience, and considerable practice and work (Wiseman and Aron, 1972) and (Cohen 1976) by the researcher, fall into two categories:

## 1 Push Factors

The highly quantitative nature of previous research in the field<sup>2</sup>, together with its insufficiency and the low response rate of the pilot mailed questionnaires<sup>3</sup> administered by the researcher, led to the search of another exploratory method to provide sufficient and relevant information for the research.

## 2 Pull factors

The researcher was aware of many of the benefits of in- depth interviews in comparison with other exploratory methods such as mailed questionnaires as outlined by Bailey (1994) including the following:

- i) Flexibility
- ii) Response rate
- iii) Nonverbal behaviour
- iv) Control over environment
- v) Question order and spontaneity
- vi) Respondent alone can answer
- vii) Completeness
- viii) Time of interview
- ix) Greater complexity of questionnaire

The above mentioned benefits were incorporated into Bell's (1995) *Interview Checklist* to make sure both the interviews proceeded in a logical manner and the researcher benefited from the use of this technique. Bell's (1995) Interview Checklist included the following points (Figure 5.5):

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<sup>2</sup> The early research studies of Turkish Ministry of Tourism in 1993 and 1997 and Berskoy's (1995) were extremely quantitative and did not reveal any insight into tourist decision making process.

<sup>3</sup> The response rate was 13.3% in the pilot mailed questionnaires. 4 responses were received from 30 mailed questionnaires and 3 of the responses were incomplete. The addresses were randomly selected (one in every five) from the customer databases of two travel agencies.

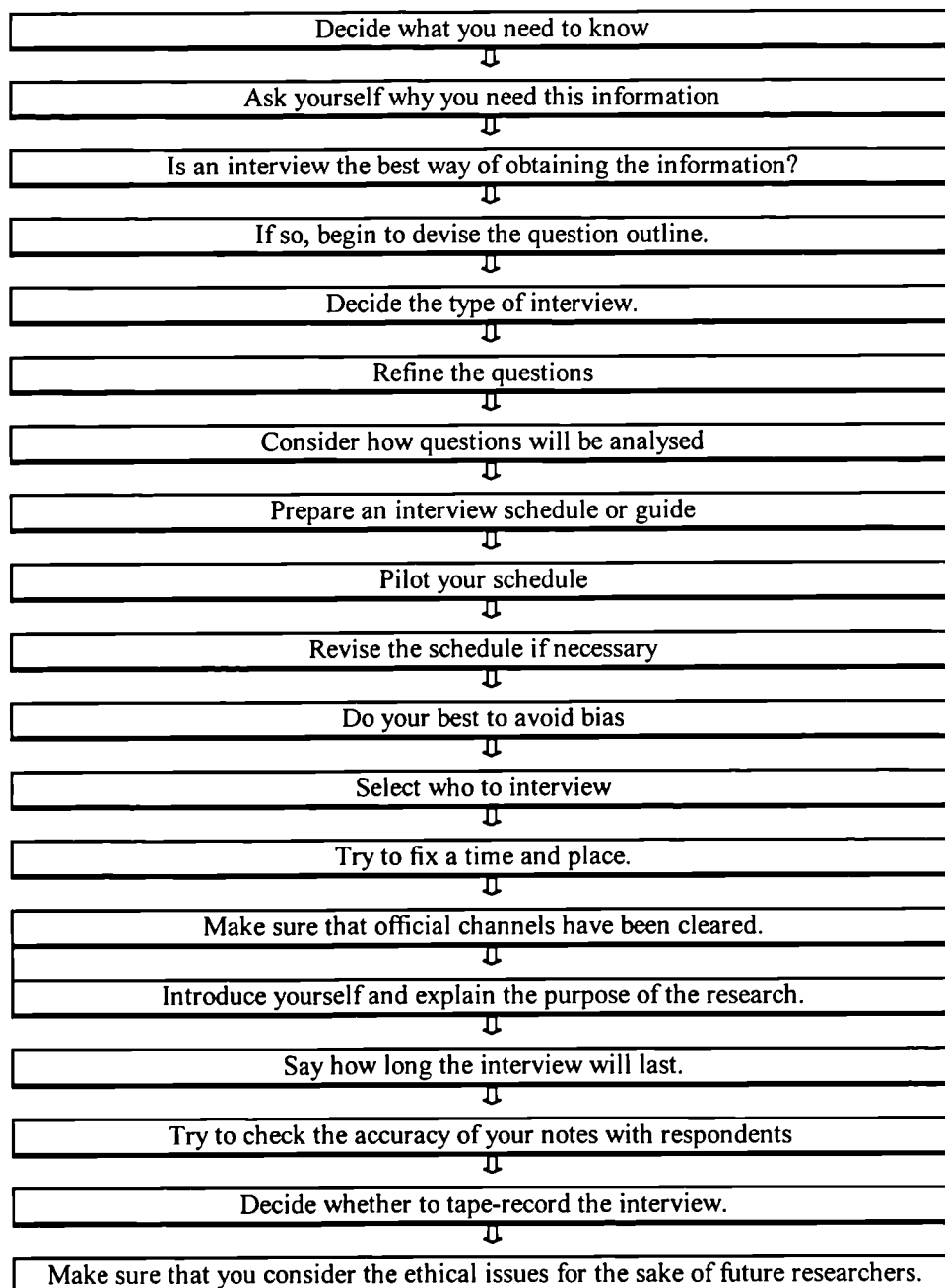


Figure 5.5 Interview Checklist. (Adapted from Bell, J. (1995) *Doing Your research Project – A Guide for First-Time Researchers in Education and Social Science*, Buckingham, Open University Press).

Although Bell's (1995) checklist can be considered as laborious due to the number of steps it involves, it ensured that the researcher was confident about reaping the benefits of interviews as outlined by Bailey (1994) earlier on. The benefits, which accrued from the exploratory interviews, can be explained in parallel with Bailey's (1994) interview checklist as follows:

### i) Flexibility

Although all respondents were asked questions that were worded to allow comparability, in certain circumstances, the interviewer felt the need to redirect questions in order to find out the true answers to the questions because of the attitudinal nature of the research. In particular, as tourists were not consciously aware of some of the issues addressed in a number of questions, some explanations had to be made. Various researchers like Dann (1979) and Jafari (1987) have commented on the complexity of travel motives. In order to check the appropriateness of the questions, before the actual exploratory interview process, the questions were piloted informally to four domestic tourists (2 males and 2 females), to ensure their comprehensibility.

Moreover, during the interviews, use was made of the following interviewing *interventions* recommended by Whyte (1982), (in line with the flexible nature of the method) to gain a deeper insight during the process:

- Using non-verbal responses to indicate that the interviewer is still listening and interested through nodding and keeping eye contact with the interviewee.
- Encouraging the subject to keep talking and expanding on the current topic –eg ‘That’s interesting’.
- Using reflection by repeating the last statement as a question – eg ‘so you think the availability of activities for children provided at the accommodation establishment are more important than the availability of activities for parents.’
- Probing by inviting explanations of statements- ‘Why is the availability of activities for children provided at the accommodation establishment more important than the availability of activities for parents?’
- Backtracking through remembering something the subject said earlier and inviting further information – ‘Let’s go back to what you were saying about children and activities.’

- Initiating a new topic – ‘Can we talk about other reasons why people go on a package holiday?’

Berger (1999) talked about interviewee bias and pointed out that all market research would have bias of some sort embedded within it, and the issue is not whether the bias existed, but show how significant it may be in influencing the data collected. It is the role of the researcher to reduce the bias through interview protocol, and the demeanour of the interviewer.

In general, the researcher himself did not have any strong preconceived ideas about any aspect of the research, as the main purpose was to explore. However, intuitively the researcher thought that the newspaper advertisements currently used by the travel agencies were likely to be ineffective and so special care was taken to be vigilant and not to reveal this to the respondents. (See 5.0.6.1 for the strategies applied to ensure descriptive validity).

To ensure the validity of the responses, particular attention was paid to avoid the element of bias. Bailey (1994: 187) advises that ‘clarification of questions should be avoided in structured interviews since it can lead to subtle changes in question meaning’. However, Bailey (1994) referred to structured interviews or surveys and not to in-depth interviews when he argued that clarification of questions should be avoided. The avoidance of clarification of questions in an in-depth interview such as this one would have resulted in unanswered questions and/or responses which may have low relevancy to the context. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1995) suggest that a positivistic approach can be retained, where the interviewer follows a fairly standardised set of questions, whilst offering some flexibility, and allows the views of the interviewee to become known. Johns (1985:87) highlights a number of issues that researchers may need to consider for interviews to be successful:

“... there is no such thing as presuppositionless research. In preparing for interviews researchers will have, and should have, some broad questions in mind, and the more interviews they do and the more patterns they see in data, the more likely they are to use this grounded understanding to want to explore in certain direction rather than others”.

Borg (1981) draws attention to some of the problems which may occur during interviews:

Eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer, a vague antagonism that sometimes arises between interviewer and respondent, or the tendency of the interviewer to seek out answers that support his preconceived notions are but few of the factors that may contribute to biasing of data obtained from the interview. These factors are called *response effect* by survey researchers.

(Borg, 1981:87)

In order to establish objectivity in the interviews with tourists, careful attention was paid to the *response effect* as described by Borg (1981).

#### ii) Response rate

Another advantage of face to face interviews, compared with mailed questionnaires, is the response rate is known. In mailed questionnaires, the response rate may become unacceptably low and time and efforts would be wasted. However, with interviews other interviewees may be approached in a relatively shorter time period. This advantage proved beneficial in this research.

#### iii) Nonverbal behaviour

The interviewer had the opportunity to observe the nonverbal behaviour of the respondents. In certain instances the interviewer was able to note the approval and disapproval of a spouse when the other partner was talking. In cases where the body language indicated that there were disparities between what was said and the truth, the interviewer made sure that the matter was clarified through asking further questions or asking for explanations.

#### iv) Control over environment

The interviewer made sure that there was not much distraction in the form of noise, etc, during the interviews. The sessions were held on a private section of the beach front to ensure that the interviewees felt not intimidated.

#### v) Question order and spontaneity

The questions were answered in the right order. As the respondents did not know the following question, the potential element of bias was also reduced. This also made

sure that the answers were spontaneous. In a mailed questionnaire, the respondents have the chance of reading all the questions before starting to answer questions one by one (See Appendix 1).

vi) Respondent alone can answer

The respondents were unable to 'cheat' by receiving prompting answers from others, or by having others complete the entire questionnaire for him or her, as might happen in mailed studies (Bailey, 1994). There were many occasions of one of the spouse intervening when the other one was responding. However, this helped clarify some of the aspects, rather than hindering the process.

vii) Completeness

The interviewer made sure that all questions were answered regarding the holiday decision making process. The question regarding the income of the respondents were optional and 80% of the respondents did not answer this question.

Additionally, arising from *completeness* of interviews, notes were checked at the end of each interview session to make sure that the interviewees true meaning was recorded. (See 5.0.6.1 for issues related to ensuring descriptive validity).

In terms of recording the interviews, as the researcher felt that a tape recorder could act as a barrier to communication, they were not tape recorded. The recording of the respondents' answers were recorded in writing by the researcher, as the answers were given.

Kvale (1996:161) outlined some of the problems but also some of the real advantages of an approach that foregoes the use of a tape recorder:

'An interview may also be recorded through a reflected use of the researcher's subjectivity and remembering, relying on his or her empathy and memory and then writing down the main aspects of the interview after the session, sometimes assisted by notes taken during the interview. There are obvious limitations to a reliance on memory for interview analysis, such as the rapid forgetting of details and the influence of a selective memory. The interviewer's immediate memory, will, however, include the visual information of the situation as well as the social atmosphere and personal interaction, which to a larger extent is lost in the audiotape recording. The interviewer's active listening and



remembering may ideally work as a selective filter, retaining those very meanings that are essential for the topic and purpose of study.'

The other three guidelines offered by Bell (1995) are related to the ethical issues such as anonymity, and respecting the privacy of the interviewees. Anonymity of the interviewees was ensured and special attention paid so that interviewees do not regret that they were involved in this research. It was essential not to disenchant participants for future researchers.

#### viii) Time of interview

The interviewer was able to determine and record the exact time and place of the interview. After having made appointments with the candidates, all interviews were carried out in the afternoon between 15:30 and 16:30. The core of each interview lasted 20 to 30 minutes, though the discussion went on as long as 45 minutes to an hour in some of the interviews.

The choice of the hour of the day was determined with the recommendation of the personnel at the holiday establishments. Between 15:30 and 16:30 tourists were most relaxed and they were usually not engaged in any particular activity.

#### ix) Greater complexity of questionnaire

The label 'qualitative interview' has been used to describe a broad range of 'different types of interview, from those that are supposedly totally 'non-directive' or 'open' to those where the interviewer takes to the interview a prepared list of questions which he or she is determined to ask' (Burgess, 1982:45).

The difficulties and the potential problems with the interview method as mentioned by Borg (1981) above and Sellitz *et al.* (1962:583) who pointed out that 'interviewers were human beings and not machines' and their manner may have an effect on the respondents' was taken into account. Wiseman and Aron (1972) and Cohen (1976) likened the interview process to fishing and emphasised the importance of careful preparation, much patience, and considerable practice if the eventual reward is to be a worthwhile catch'. On the other hand, Ledingham and Bruning (1998) argued against

the fishing metaphor in exploratory research. They proposed that as a method of qualitative research, focus groups should be used as a problem solving technique, not as a fishing expedition and that focus groups produced better results when they addressed specific issues that need to be answered, or conceptual approaches that need to be tested to determine the likelihood of success.

Dean *et al.* (1997) emphasise the significance of in-depth interviews in social research and explained the skills needed in carrying out effective interviews by using the analogy of an investigative newspaper journalist:

Many people feel that a newspaper reporter is a far cry from a social scientist. Yet many of the data of social science today are gathered by interviewing and observation techniques that resemble those of a skilled newspaper man at work on the study of, say, a union strike or a political convention. It makes little sense for us to belittle these less rigorous methods as 'unscientific'. We will do better to study them and the techniques they involve so that we can make better use of them in producing scientific information (Dean *et al.*, quoted in Veal (1997), p.134).

The approach of using couples in the interviews may be questioned on the basis that it may jeopardise *interpretive validity*. It may be argued that the responses of one individual spouse, male or female, may be affected by the other spouse.

However, the researcher believed that this approach, rather than hindering the establishment of interpretive validity, ensured it. The presence of two spouses acted as a verifying mechanism, which would not have existed in a one-to-one-interview. Additionally, this approach, through the observation of the interaction between the couples, helped the researcher identify the true roles in the family holiday decision making process. Kelly *et al.* (1983) argue that in accounting for how couples confront decisions, it is important to acknowledge the processes through which the couple interacts.

For purposes of comparability among the subjects, a structured questionnaire was used in the interviews. However, the questions were used as a checklist as suggested by Veal (1997) rather than a mere *instrument*. Crouch and Housden (1996) criticise the use of rigid questionnaire based interviews:

“There is very little need for the interviewer to intervene in either asking questions, apart from reading out what is on the questionnaire, or in interpreting the questions, apart from ringing the appropriate codes”.

Crouch and Housden (1996): p.170

The interview process was carried out according to Bell’s (1995) Interview Checklist explained earlier on in this chapter. The fourth stage in Bell’s (1995) Interview Checklist, which was the designing of the question outline, was a crucial one in this research. To ensure the effectiveness of this stage the researcher had informal discussions with key informants in the industry and a number of academics before, during and after the designing of the question outline.

Based on the fact that there was a dearth of related previous research, the outline of questions were left as broad as possible, while at the same time they were focused enough to enable the maximum exploration of the first two key questions of this research (See 5.0.1). The first key question was divided into six sub questions (questions four to nine in the interviews) and the second key question was further divided into three sub questions (questions six to nine in the interviews) which were believed to allow the exploration of the two of the key questions. These were believed to allow the exploration of the two key questions:

- What sort of information sources do tourists use before going on a holiday?
- Do they find the information provided by these sources sufficient and effective?  
How could the current information provided by the information sources be improved?
- How long before going on a holiday do they start searching for information and book their holidays?
- What are the specific activities carried out before a holiday decision is made?
- How much do they value the reputation of a travel agency? Do they always go with the same travel agency when they are satisfied?
- If they were satisfied, would they go to the same destination and the same accommodation establishment? (ie would they buy the same holiday product without any changes?)
- What are their main motivations for going on a holiday? Why?

- What attributes do they value most in a package holiday? Why? Describe your ideal holiday?
- What do you do when you are dissatisfied with the holiday during and after the holiday?

The answers to the above questions provided a good insight into the tourist decision making process and the formation of initial key questions. The researcher was aware of the advantages of interview studies suggested by Bailey (1994) and it became apparent that a mere quantitative study such as mailed questionnaires would not have produced reliable and relevant data in this context.

### **5.1.2 Stage II: Key informant Interviews**

It was planned to interview as many interviewees as possible to understand the market from the supply side. However, because of the ownership structure of individual firms and the intensity of competition in the market, only 12 executives (managers responsible for domestic tourism market in a travel agency) and 16 sales representatives were interviewed from 12 travel agencies. Of the 12 agencies, 6 were major players in the market in terms of market share, and the remaining 6 travel agencies were small independent travel agencies. The sampling method used was convenience based.

Additionally, informal talks with other industry experts, tourism ministry officials and experts in non-governmental organisations such as the Association of Turkish Travel Agencies and Turkish Tourism Education and Development Foundation were undertaken.

In many instances, especially in the cases of travel agencies, all participants wanted their names to be kept confidential as they felt in future they may be questioned or held liable for the information they disclosed by their bosses or superiors. Due to ethical and personal relationships these wishes were respected. Based on the fact that the structure of domestic tourism was similar to an oligopolistic market with about 7-8 major players constituting a greater proportion of the market share, it was felt that the sampling was appropriate.

The initial success of the tourist interviews, and the experience gained in this process, confirmed that the most appropriate technique for the next stage of research would be in-depth interviews with industry experts. A further reason for the use of interviews was the highly competitive nature of the sector and the power and ownership structures in travel agencies. Informal talks with managers and staff in travel agencies proved that people would not be happy to disclose information in a written format, such as a mailed survey, which may then make them accountable to the owners of the travel agencies.

Churchill (1995) stated that “in studies concerned with the marketing of a product [or a service], anyone who has any association with the marketing effort is a potential source of information. This would include the top executives, of the company, sales manager, product manager, and sales representatives”.

Rather than reiterating the benefits of interviews and how the process developed, the researcher will explain the *specific* arrangements which had to be made in order to address the research questions:

#### i) Design of questions for the interview

Starting with a draft outline of questions, and these were discussed regarding the appropriateness of these questions through informal talks with people from travel agencies, officials from the Ministry of Tourism, academics from Turkish universities and the deputy general secretary of a non-governmental organisation called TUGEV (Turizm Eğitim and Geliştirme Vakfı – Tourism Education and Development Foundation).

This ensured the validity, relevance and appropriateness of the questions within the framework of key aspects of this research. (See Appendix 2).

#### ii) Obtaining information

Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1995:74) describe two of the instances which necessitate the use of the interview method as ‘when the subject matter is highly confidential or

commercially sensitive’ and ‘when the interviewee is reluctant to be truthful about the issue other than confidentially in a one-to-one situation’.

There was much more potential for interviewee bias in the key informant interviews than the tourist interviews, due to the factors mentioned in checklist item 3 in Bell’s (1995) interview checklist, namely the highly competitive nature of the sector and the ownership structure in travel agencies. The researcher was aware of the sensitivity of some of the issues, especially related to the number of holiday packages sold each year by a particular travel agency, profit margins, and any financial information. Although these issues were not of primary concern, they were conducive to familiarising the researcher with the market and the competitive environment. As none of the travel agencies was a public quoted company, the dissemination of information to the public about the performance of these travel agencies was nonexistent.

In order to overcome problems in obtaining information, and yet to remain ethical in obtaining information, an indirect approach was chosen by asking each interviewee what they knew about the other travel agencies in the market, for instance the market share of other travel agencies in the market. The researcher was aware of the problems related to the accuracy of information gained from an interviewee about the operations of other travel agencies; there was no other way of obtaining information about some of the issues. Cross-checks proved that it was reasonably accurate.

### iii) Who to interview and the timing of the interviews

All interviews were held between 18-21 February 1999, when the East Mediterranean International Travel and Tourism Exhibition (Emitt’99 Voyager) was held in Istanbul. The interviews with staff from large travel agencies were made by appointment. The interviews with smaller travel agencies were made during the Exhibition without an appointment.

### iv) Recording of interviews

Based on the circumstances mentioned above in iii) above and 5.0.6.5.2 ii) , the

audiotaping of the interviews was out of the question. Far from becoming a barrier to communication, the use of a tape recorder would have caused the refusal of the interview request.

As in the case of tourist interviews, notes were taken in short hand during the interview, and checked the accuracy of the responses with the interviewee at the end of the session and transcribed the interview notes in the evening.

The purpose of the interviews was to find out answers to the following questions:

- 1 Who are the main groups of customers and their characteristics?  
(Segmentational variables)
- 2 How is information about customers obtained? How is the information processed and by whom?
- 3 Is there a formal marketing department? If yes; what sort of activities are carried out in the marketing department?
- 4 What is the size of the total market? What is the market share of each individual travel agency? For instance, your competitor A ...
- 5 What are the stages in preparing a package holiday before a customer purchases it?
- 6 Who is the travel agency you are working for owned by? What is the most common form of ownership among travel agencies and commercial accommodation establishments?
- 7 What are the main motivations of tourists for going on a holiday? Why do they go on a holiday? What do they expect from a holiday? What sort of things would like to do on a holiday? What are their preferences? What do they value most?
- 8 In general when do customers make a booking?
  - a) on average how many days, weeks and months before going on a holiday.
  - b) Season: winter, summer, etc. What is the peak season, month, and day of the week?
- 9 In family holidays who contacts the holiday agency?
  - a) Husband    b) Wife    c) Child/ren
- 10 How do customers get in touch with the travel agency?  
Do they come directly or phone first, etc?

- 11 On average what percentage of customers coming into the travel agency make a purchase? How long does it take to close a sale on average? Do customers need much convincing from the sales personnel?
- 12 Do customers come alone? Or with friends, family members, etc.
- 13 How do travel agencies reach their customers and promote their products? What is your annual promotional expenditure? As a percentage of sales? Breakdown of promotional expenditures? Advertising (brochures, newspapers, other), public relations, personal selling, sales promotion.
- 14 When is the peak season/period in the domestic tourism market?
- 11 Who is responsible for preparing the brochures marketing communication materials and messages? Is the travel agency satisfied with marketing communication messages? Are they effective?

### 5.1.3 Stage III: Observations

Nisbett and Watt (1980) point out that although interviews provide data, they reveal how people *perceive* what happens, not actually what happens. Direct observation can be more reliable, than what people say in many circumstances (Bell, 1995), as long as the researcher is aware of the non-representative behaviour of participants and ensures that selective perception does not take place (Seymour, 1987). As observation involves watching and recording what people say and do, it is impossible to record everything and the process becomes necessarily selective. To avoid this, systematic recording was carried out in the form of field notes (See Appendix 3). Therefore, one of the main advantages of observation technique can be summarised as that this technique can circumvent the biases inherent in the accounts people give of their actions. Such bias is caused by factors such as the wish to present themselves in a good light, differences in recall, selectivity, and the influences of the roles they occupy (Mays and Pope, 1995).

There are two main types of observation – *participant* and *non-participant*. Non-participant observation was used to avoid bias and subjectivity. However, as the researcher had to get permission from the management of travel agencies, the travel agency personnel were aware of the role of the interviewer. Some may argue that this may create a halo (Thorndike, 1920) or Hawthorne effect (Rice, 1982) and may influence the outcomes. Nevertheless, the researcher had to get permission because of



ethical reasons and also based on the small lounges of travel agencies he would have attracted more attention otherwise, and jeopardised the objectivity of the research. Cohen and Manion (1989) draw attention to some of the criticisms levelled at participant observation:

“The accounts that typically emerge from participant observation are often described as subjective, biased, impressionistic, idiosyncratic and lacking the precise quantifiable measures that are the hallmark of survey research and experimentation”.

Therefore, turning to observation, due to the limitations of interviews, may result in other problems.

After the tourist interviews and key informant interviews, it was necessary to see the exchange relationship between the employees of a travel agency and the potential customers. The main advantage of the observation method was that it was unobtrusive (Webb et al, 1966, Kellehar, 1993), ie information gathering about people's behaviour was carried out without their knowledge. In his book, *Researching Tourist Satisfaction*, Ryan (1995), referencing Gold (1969), identified four roles for observation research: participant, participant observer, observer participant, and observer. The researcher was a mere observer, the only people being aware of the observation process were the travel agency personnel. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1995) criticise the use of the 'observation alone' technique in management studies, as the researcher avoids sustained interaction with those under study. However, the point put forward by Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1995) centres around the topic of 'interaction with personnel' which may be seen as vital in social constructionism. The researcher rather than being interested in the behaviour of the personnel at travel agencies, which may be biased anyway as they knew they were being observed, placed an emphasis on how tourists interacted with the travel agency personnel. Thus the purpose of the observation can be said to familiarise the researcher further with the topic and to control and compare some of the issues that came up in the tourist interviews.

Three full day observations were made in three travel agencies, two of them being large ones and the other, small. The sampling was purposive, rather than statistically

based, deliberately selecting three travel agencies which focused mainly on marketing domestic holidays.

The observation was aimed at finding out information about the following:

- How do customers find out about the travel agency and its package holidays? In terms of information sources, do they refer to an advertisement, to a previous telephone conversation, comments made by friends and relatives, etc,
- Do they come to the travel agency with a few options or do they come without any pre-conceived ideas about package holidays?
- What sort of questions do they ask? Do they ask questions regarding the facilities at the accommodation establishment? Do they ask questions regarding transportation? Do they ask questions regarding the financing? How important are these issues to the consumers? What matters most to them?
- Who do they come with to the travel agency? Do they come as couples or alone? Do they bring their child/ren?
- What is the role of each family member when they interact with the travel agency staff?

#### **5.1.4 Stage IV: Focus Groups**

Since their origin in the 1950s, focus group processes have become an increasingly popular method of collecting qualitative information (Quible, 1998). The focus group process evolved from the focused interview (Merton *et al.*, 1956; 1987) and group therapy methods of psychiatrists (Linda, 1982). O'Donnell (1988) mentions two reasons for the increasing popularity of focus groups:

- i) they provide qualitatively different information from that obtained in individual interviews and thus they create an opportunity to bring out a range

of information, because the group setting encourages spontaneous and candid reactions.

- ii) for certain types of research, for instance, when investigating attitudes, beliefs and feelings, there are no other valid or reliable quantitative, or even qualitative, data-collection methods.

Powel *et al.* (1996) defined focus groups as;

‘a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research.’

Churchill, (1995) summarises the uses of focus groups in marketing research as follows:

- 1 to generate hypotheses that can be tested quantitatively.  
Krueger (1988) states that focus groups can be used at the preliminary or exploratory stages of a study, and focus group panellists often are the first prospects exposed to the researcher’s new ideas (Fitzpatrick, 1997). Thus in focus groups it can be said that it is the depth, not numbers, that counts.  
Ledingham and Bruning (1998) pointed out that focus groups are best used to find out what people think and feel-not to determine the percentage of a population that favours or disagrees with an issue or action.
- 2 to generate information helpful in structuring consumer questionnaires.
- 3 to provide overall background information on a product or service category.
- 4 to secure impressions on new product concepts.

The main features of a focus group include an organised discussion (Kitzinger, 1995), a collective activity (Powel *et al.*, 1996), social events (Goss and Leinbach, 1996) and interaction (Kitzinger, 1995). The focus groups used in this research were semi-

structured in a sense so as not to allow panellists to drift away from the central themes of consumer decision making and information processing.

Focus groups are a form of group interviewing, but it is important to make a distinction between the two. Group interviewing involves interviewing a number of people at the same time, the emphasis being on questions and responses between the researcher and the participants. In a group interview the role of the interviewer/researcher is of central importance. On the other hand, focus groups rely on *interaction* within the group based on topics that are supplied by the researcher (Morgan, 1997) and the role of the researcher is more like a facilitator or a moderator (Walker, 1985). However, this does not mean that the role of interviewer/researcher is minimal in a focus group study when compared with group interviewing. The role of the moderator is a demanding and challenging one and moderators need to possess good interpersonal skills and personal qualities such as being good listeners, being non-judgemental and adaptable (Gibbs, 1997). The researcher believes that he has developed, through his education and experience, both in business management and academia, at least some of the interpersonal skills and personal qualities mentioned by Gibbs (1997).

The main purpose of focus group research is then to draw upon respondents' *attitudes, beliefs, experiences* and *reactions* in a way which would not be feasible in group interviewing or other research methods (Gibson, 1999). For instance, in group interviews interaction between the group members is unusual. The attitudes, feelings and beliefs may be partially independent of a group or its social setting, but are more likely to be unearthed through the social interaction which being in a focus group entails. Additionally, focus groups may elicit a multiplicity of views and emotional processes.

Focus groups have certain advantages over observational methods too. For instance, a focus group enables a larger amount of information to be gained in a shorter period of time. Observational methods tend to depend on waiting for things to happen, whereas the researcher follows an interview guide in a focus group.

Focus groups may elicit information in a way which may enable researchers to find

out why an issue is salient, and as well as what is salient about it (Morgan, 1988).

On the other hand, there may be some disadvantages in using focus groups as a data collection technique (Quible, 1998):

- Researchers such as Crowne and Marlow (1994), Lydecker (1986), and O'Donnel (1988) draw attention to the fact that focus groups can be too time consuming or costly. As it was vital for the researcher to find out about the attitudes of people to a given marketing stimuli, in this case marketing communications, there was no other way of unearthing information about these attitudes.
- There is a potential for falling into the pitfall of using focus groups just evaluatively, rather than developmentally (Linda, 1982). As mentioned in 5.1. 1, the researcher was mainly concerned with the discovery of ideas, and tentative explanations of the phenomenon, and not on demonstrating which explanation is *the* explanation (Churchill, 1995). However, some level of *evaluation* was unavoidable as the focus group study was the fourth stage of the research and the researcher had accumulated a considerable amount of information, and reached certain conclusions.
- The pressure of group participants to provide socially acceptable responses as a means of conforming to groups norms is greater than found with the process of anonymous questionnaires (Crowne and Marlow, 1994). However, the researcher was convinced that he was able to elicit panellist's' true beliefs, attitudes and thoughts, through asking probing questions, attentive listening, empathy and by asking them to make comments about each the views of each other. If the focus groups study has been carried out in a group interview manner ie mainly asking questions and getting responses, the true opinions may not have been obtained.

To avoid the potential problems with focus groups, a stage by stage checklist was developed based on the various recommendations accumulated from the literature review and accessed from the marketing consultancy firm web sites.

#### **A) Selection of the Panellists**

Two groups of panellists; one consisting of males (5) and the other one consisting of females (6) were selected from the academic and administrative personnel of Dogus University, Dogus Group of Schools, a range of institutions from primary school to high school. All of the participants were married, were between the ages of 21 and 45 with children up to the age of 15. Again, the approach used in determining the panellists was convenience based and purposive. The researcher felt that it was not an easy task to convince people even with the use of financial and other incentives to participate in a half an hour focus group study in front of a camera with people they did not know. Therefore, the researcher convinced people he knew or was acquainted with and who were appropriate for this research due to their characteristics in terms of their age, their stage in the family life cycle and so on. Panellists were deliberately chosen according to the number of package holidays they had engaged in, ranging from zero to six. Even if a panellist never experienced a package holiday, the researcher ensured that s/he had at least engaged in an independent holiday experience including staying at a commercial holiday accommodation.

According to O'Donnell (1988), focus-group participants must share a common denominator such as affiliation with an organisation, interest in the topic being discussed, or the use of the same product or service. As mentioned above, all participants were between the ages of 21-45, married and had children not older than fifteen. They all had at least one summer holiday in a year and they were either Organised Mass Tourists (OMTs) or Independent Mass Tourists (IMTs) (Yiannakis and Gibson, 1992). To enhance objectivity, the focus groups included a proportional number of people, chosen at random, from each of the important segments as suggested by Berger (1999).

Ethical issues relating to focus groups were considered. Homan (1991) mentions that ethical considerations for focus groups are the same as for most other research methods of social science. Full information about the purpose and uses of the participants' contributions was given to all participants.

As the topic was not thought of as gender-neutral (Furmansky, 1997), two separate

focus groups with males and females were held. This gave the researcher the opportunity to observe and compare different gender groups for a better understanding of their differences, if any.

#### **B) Time, Place and Recording of the Focus Group Studies**

The focus group studies were held on June 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> June 1999 before panellists went for their summer holidays. It was hoped that their involvement would be high, as they would be thinking of making plans for their summer holidays. Both focus groups were held in the afternoon by appointment to make sure that they were not concerned with any other activities to distract them.

Focus groups studies were held at a video laboratory in order to videotape the process. The videotape recording was done by an experienced professional who was involved in various video-recording activities before. Ledingham and Burning (1998) recommend that focus groups should be video taped for later review and editing, but care must be taken to make sure that the panellists are not distracted by the video camera. (See Appendix 4-A) and 4-B) for focus group study transcripts).

#### **C) The Design of the Content and Implementation of Focus Groups**

Based on the experience and knowledge gained in the previous stages of the research, a twelve-page-pamphlet of sample newspaper advertisements was prepared. Each page of advertisement included the same set of 15 package holidays scattered in each page in a different order. The prices of these 15 package holidays did not differ from one page of advertisement to another in order to eliminate the issues related to the price of a package holiday (See Appendix 5). Three travel agencies featured in the advertisements: i) a market leader ii) a market follower iii) an unknown brand. (The researcher in fact made up the name of the travel agency).

For each travel agency there were four pages of advertisements including (See Appendix 5):

- i) Plain and factual, “attribute based” advertisements (Laskey *et al.*, 1994) (the type of advertisements used in the industry at present). These included

information about the products' features only.

- ii) The same factual advertisements enhanced with verbal cognitive and affective (emotional) cues carrying the following themes:
  - a) rest and relaxation
  - b) family being together
  - c) activities for children to assure a) above for the parents.
- iii) The same factual advertisements enhanced with cognitive and affective and photo cues carrying the themes outlined in ii) a,b and c) above:
- iv) The same factual advertisements enhanced with cognitive and affective both verbal and photo cues *carrying the themes outlined in ii) a,b and c) above:*

It was observed that the role of effective planning was an important one as emphasised by Quible (1998). This process is outlined below:

i) Stage 1 – Pre-Focus Group

The participants were told that they should assume that they have planned to go on a summer holiday as a family in Turkey.

They are asked to review 12 pages of newspaper advertisements (See Appendix 5-C and 5-E) and choose the three holidays that they would like to go on most, record the pages of the advertisements and write down why they chose those holidays.

Participants were not allowed to make more than two choices from each page.

To avoid the influence of the group on each individual participant's decision- making, participants were asked to write down their choices and the reasons.

ii) Stage 2 –Focus Group

In this stage each participant was asked which holidays he or she chose as his/or her first, second and third choices and asked to explain why. The focus group study



followed from this point onwards with a discussion including the holiday choices and the following:

- They were asked what some of the verbal and photographic clues meant for them.
- The decision making process and the activities carried out before actually going on a holiday together with the role of the family members in each stage.
- The type of information sources used and evaluation of these sources.
- The role of brand reputation in the holiday decision -making.

As the results of the focus groups were based on small numbers of people, they were considered as exploratory, not definitive (Furmansky, 1997). For this reason, final interviews with tourists were undertaken.

#### **5.1.5 Stage V: Final Interviews with Tourists**

The objective of the final interviews was to see in greater detail how tourists process the content of marketing communications messages in the domestic tourism market. Additionally, final interviews were aimed at exploring the consumer decision making process.

Although the aim was not to infer quantitative conclusions, the researcher was interested in whether there were common patterns in terms of attitudes of tourists which, may then be used in developing a set of guidelines for designing marketing communications messages in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

The sample again was convenience based and purposive. It consisted of:

- 50 males and 50 females (The initial target of 100 males and 100 females had to be limited because of time and availability constraints).
- All participants were married, were between the ages of 21 and 45 with children up to the age of 15.

- interviewees had different number of experiences of package holidays ranging from none to more than six. As in the case of the focus groups, people with no experience, had independent holiday experience at commercial holiday establishments.
- The actual participants were:
  - 40 members of staff from Dogus University and Dogus Group of Schools.
  - 40 people from companies where the researcher worked in previously.
  - 20 people from neighbours and personal friends of the researcher.

The questionnaire (See Appendix 5-A and B) for the interviews was based mainly on the framework of the focus groups. In the first section, the interviewees were asked to choose three holidays in order of preference from twelve pages of newspaper advertisements (See Appendix 5-D), and explain why they have made those decisions. As in the case of the focus groups, the newspaper advertisements featured three travel agencies as follows: i) a market leader ii) a market follower iii) an unknown brand. (The researcher in fact made up the name of the travel agency).

For each travel agency, there was a separate page of advertisement which displayed identical characteristics to the advertisements used in the focus group study. (See 5.1.4).

There was one page of plain factual advertisement (the type of advertisements used in the industry at present) for each of the three travel agencies featured in the advertisements. There was also one page of advertisement which was enhanced with cognitive and affective (emotional) verbal cues for each of the three travel agencies. The cognitive and affective verbal cues included the following themes; a) rest and relaxation, b) family being together and c) activities for children to assure a) above for the parents.

The cognitive and affective verbal cues carrying the rest and relaxation theme was used because more than 80% of domestic tourism activity in Turkey is characterised

by sun and sea type of tourism, with the main push factors being rest, tranquillity, relaxation, safety, followed by fun (TEMPO, 1999). Therefore, it was thought that it would be important to explore the role and potential of cognitive and affective cues carrying “rest and relaxation” themes in the marketing communications messages.

Additionally, as this research was mainly geared towards the family holidays and the fact that families supply 80% of domestic holidays in Turkey (TURSAB, 1999), again it was also thought the role and potential of cognitive and affective verbal cues carrying the themes of “family being together” and “availability of activities for children” had to be explored in the marketing communications messages.

As it was explained in 5.1.4 there were two more pages advertisements for each travel agency. In one of the sets the themes which are explained above were presented with photo cues only. In the last set of advertisements there were one page of advertisement for each travel agency with both verbal and photo cues carrying the themes explained above.

Following the exercise linked to the advertisements the second section of the interview asked socio-demographic questions of a quantitative type, whilst also seeking additional information about respondents decision making process, the information sources used, together with the level of involvement of family members in the information search and decision making process. A dummy question was used to check the consistency of the participants’ responses.

The process of the interviews were as follows:

- 1 The interviewer asked the interviewee to fill in the questionnaire.
- 2 Then, the interviewer asked questions to clarify what the interviewee had written in their response.

Based on the above design of the interviews and focus group studies, the researcher was aware that the final two stages of the research might be questioned from researchers on the basis of increasing positivism by framing and limiting the options open to the participants. The critics might suggest that it would be more appropriate to

ask, “What does this marketing communications message mean to the consumer”? rather than to ask “What is the consumer’s attitude to this marketing communications message”? Or others might argue that such a strategy might be limiting the choice for the participants and hence jeopardising descriptive validity, and the use of a non-positivist and vague stimulus (Churchill, 1995) through a projective technique would have yielded more dependable data. The rationale for these techniques is that participants will reveal hidden levels of their consciousness by reacting to different types of stimuli, such as drawings, photographs or simply writing a story as in the case of Thematic Apperception Test (Murray, 1938; McClelland, 1961). The stimuli are intended to be very ambiguous in the hope that participants will ‘project’ their own meaning and significance on to the drawings or a story. As result, innermost motives and feelings of the participants will be revealed by the participants enabling the interpretation by trained psychologists (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995).

Proponents of projective techniques such as Freud (See Hall (1954) and Rogers (1967)) argue that there are at least three important reasons why participants may not express their true feelings and thoughts, which are a) repression and the unconscious b) self-awareness and rationality and c) social influences

The researcher was aware of the advantages of the projective techniques and the common use of these techniques in market research (Jobber and Horgan, 1987). However, it was felt that there were practical limitations in using these techniques for this particular research. It was believed, as pointed out by Fill (1995), that the projective techniques entailed significant risks in collecting, analysing and interpreting of data. Fill (1995) stated that the use of the technique required extensive experience and skills in the planning and implementation of projective techniques. It is clear from above explanations that researchers need to be trained psychologists to be able to interpret unstructured, ambiguous data collected in projective techniques. Without formal training in psychology, the descriptive, interpretive and hence, theoretical validity of research would have been severely jeopardised.

### **5.1.6 Conclusion**

This chapter has explained the research methodology adopted and the data collection methods employed in this research. The approach adopted for the analysis of data is explained in Chapter 6.

The choices about the methodology and the data collection methods were based on a number of logical and practical reasons. The research involved a tremendous amount of exploratory work due to the lack of previous research. On reflection, the researcher feels that the choice of both methodology and data collection methods were appropriate, and that he would have gone through more or less the same research process, if he were to start again under the same circumstances. As families made their actual holiday decisions at home, and hence, it was not possible to observe this process, the use of interview and focus group study methods with participants, and observations at travel agencies was both appropriate and necessary.

However, with the benefit of hindsight the researcher recognises that, if he had been able to convince one of the travel agencies operating in the market to experiment with a variety of the marketing communications messages specifically designed for them, the findings would have been:

- a) more valid as there would have been an opportunity to research actual behaviour rather than attitudes; and
- b) more extensive as the interviewees could have been asked how and why have you purchased a particular holiday package.

This is perhaps something that most researchers feel at the end of such an exhausting process, and at least this researcher is content to have opened up an original field of research in Turkey, which can be further explored in the future.

## **Chapter 6: Analysis and Interpretation of Findings**

### **6.0 Overview**

#### **6.1.0 The Background to the Process of Analysis and Interpretation of Findings**

#### **6.2.0 Common Themes and Topics in the Description, Analysis and Interpretation**

#### **6.2.1 General knowledge about the Turkish Domestic Tourism Market**

#### **6.2.2 The Supplier's Perspective**

#### **6.2.3 The Consumer's Perspective**

#### **6.3.0 The Role and Potential of Marketing Communications in the Domestic Tourism Market**

#### **6.3.1 Marketing Communications in the Domestic Tourism Market**

#### **6.3.2 The Findings Related to the Present Role and Potential of Marketing Communications**

*This chapter seeks to describe, analyse and interpret the findings of the primary research. Although, the primary research was conducted in five distinct stages with the use of techniques ranging from interviews, to observations and focus groups as outlined in Chapter 5, the description, analysis and interpretation of findings are presented as an integrated whole in this chapter. The reason for approaching it in this way is based on both rational and practical considerations. All five stages of the primary research were collectively aimed at exploring the role and potential of marketing communications by addressing the three key questions proposed in 5.0.1, though each stage of the research has its own rationale.*

In this chapter, the findings related to tourist decision making and marketing communications are described, analysed and interpreted from both consumers' and service providers' perspectives.

#### **6.1.0 The Background to the Process of Analysis and Interpretation of the Findings**

As explained in Chapter 5, the analysis and interpretation of data in qualitative research may not be as straightforward as it is in quantitative research, due to its nature. The specific characteristics of qualitative research may cause difficulties in communicating the findings in a systematic manner (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995). When reviewing difficulties of analysing qualitative data, Miles (1979) labelled it as an "attractive nuisance". Other researchers such as Spiggle (1994) and Caterall and Maclaran (1998) shared Miles's (1979) views on the difficulties of analysing

qualitative data and considered the raw data, in qualitative research lacking an obvious and identifiable structure. This arises from the existence of few universally accepted procedures and standards for analysing qualitative data.

One of the main difficulties of analysing and interpreting qualitative data arises from the fact that it is almost impossible to draw a distinction between the collection of data and its analysis and interpretation (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1995; Caterall and Maclaran, 1998). In other words, data analysis, in qualitative research may be said to refer to both analysis and interpretation. However, the process of arriving at conclusions (analysis) and the output of these conclusions (interpretation) can be conceptualised as separate processes, even though they are performed simultaneously with each informing the other (Caterall and Maclaran, 1998).

Data analysis from the viewpoint of arriving at conclusions involves a number of analytical approaches such as organising and reorganising the data by themes or topics, annotating the text and displaying the data in ways to help the researcher to identify patterns and understand what is in the data (Tesch, 1990). Furthermore, it is not easy to describe interpretation in terms of the operations and tasks employed, as it is more subtle and difficult to describe. Wolcott (1994) uses a word association approach to distinguish between analysis (cautious, structured, formal, bounded, scientific, systematic, methodical) and interpretation (freewheeling, casual, unbounded, holistic, impassioned and systemic).

Although individual researchers may differ in the balance they strike between analysis and interpretation, [see Griggs (1989) for an analysis based approach and Evans (1987) for an interpretation based approach], a balance of analysis and interpretation is needed for both descriptive and interpretive validity of this research.

At the start, the researcher was aware of most of the difficulties relating to qualitative research in terms of data collection, analysis and interpretation. For instance, unlike quantitative research, the collection of information in qualitative research involves the gathering of a great deal of information from each respondent (Veal, 1997), rather than collecting a little information from a larger audience. The critical task before and

during analysis and interpretation is to reduce the accumulated data into common meaningful themes and topics (Wolcott, 1990). The emphasis in quantitative research is on the interpretation of data, as the researcher is concerned primarily in understanding, describing and analysing the social world from the interpretivist paradigm. In view of the lack of previous research in the field, as mentioned in 5.0.3, even a mere description of findings would have proved to be useful for practitioners in the domestic tourism market.

As mentioned under 5.0.6.5, quantification has been utilised wherever possible and when relevant. For example, in the analysis of final interviews, responses have been quantified in order to assess meaningful patterns and significance.

The format of quantification of qualitative data, (suggested by Weber (1985), and later by Yildirim and Simsek (1999)), as mentioned in 5.0.6.5) has been followed:

- i. Identification the units of analysis (words, sentences, or overall meaning).
- ii. Identification of themes and categories
- iii. The testing of the codes on sample data
- iv. Comparing the results of coding with pre-identified themes and categories.
- v. The testing of themes and categories with another set of sample data.
- vi. The coding of all data and calculation of percentages.

As the main focus was in the meanings of what people thought, believed and felt, in general, the unit of analysis was the overall meaning and themes rather than the individual words and sentences. Moreover, the identification of words and sentences would not have proved to be objective, nor relevant due to the open and non-directive nature of questions in the initial exploratory interviews and key informant interviews. In the observations, again an understanding of *overall meaning* was important, though this overall meaning was expressed through a combination of the use of individual words, sentences and the body language.



In the analysis of the focus group studies and the final interviews with tourists, a combination of units of analysis was possible. For certain central questions, for instance, the reasons for choosing particular holidays from a set of marketing communications material, the overall meaning for the reason for choosing particular holidays was important. As the reasons and the type of words might have varied, the use of words and sentences as units of analysis would not have proved to be useful and practical. On the other hand, in some of the questions where the respondent had to make a choice from a given set, the coding was simple. In these instances, quantification, ie calculating of frequencies, was made on the basis of coding.

The stages from iii to vi in Weber (1985) and Yildirim and Simsek's (1999) guidelines (as explained in 5.0.5) which entailed the testing, coding, comparing and finally calculating percentages were carried out based on the identification of units of analysis in stages i and ii.

### **6.2.0 Common Themes and Topics in the Description, Analysis and Interpretation**

As suggested by Tesch (1990) in 6.1.0, the process of data analysis in this research involved a number of analytical approaches, including: organising and reorganising the data by themes or topics, annotating text and displaying data in ways so patterns could be identified and understood.

It was possible to outline and group the following three broad categories of themes or topics to be described, analysed and interpreted from the findings. They relate to the three key questions stated in 5.0.2:

#### **i) General knowledge about the Turkish domestic tourism market**

In order to be able to explore and understand issues related to the consumer decision making process and the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market, a basic understanding of this market is essential.

## ii) The Supplier's perspective

In order to be able to explore the present role of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market, in terms of how they are designed and why they are designed the way they are, it was necessary to explore the issues relating to the key questions from the viewpoint of the senders' of marketing communications messages. Although findings relating to the supply side addressed all of the three key questions, they were useful in exploring the third key question, ie exploring the extent to which marketing initiatives are based on a thorough understanding of the needs and characteristics of identified target market. Exploring and analysing the issues relating to the supply side was also important in order to be able to offer guidelines to improve the effectiveness of the operations of suppliers.

## iii) The Consumer's Perspective

As marketing communications messages are aimed at developing a positive attitude towards the firm and its products/services (Engel *et al.*, 1994; Chisnall, 1994; Dibb *et al.*, 1996; Kotler, 1997; Smith, 1998; Fill 1999; and Kitchen, 1999), this positive attitude is expected to result in the purchase of the firms' products and services (Batra and Ray, 1986; Gardner, 1985; Lutz *et al.*, 1983; Mitchel, 1986; Mitchell and Olson, 1981; Shimp and Yokun, 1982), the characteristics of the target audience, in terms of their main motivations, how they make their holiday decisions against the given marketing communications stimuli, needed to be explored.

### 6.2.1 General Knowledge about the Turkish Domestic Tourism Market

In 5.0.3 when specific contextual factors of this research were discussed, it was stated that the Turkish domestic tourism sector had been neglected in terms of research carried in this field (Icoz, 1999; and Kozak, 1999).

The preliminary research which helped establish the primary knowledge in the area of domestic tourism (which would be readily available in, for instance, in the UK, USA

and Australia, where tourism is more developed) is an important finding of the whole thesis. These findings relating to the general knowledge of the Turkish domestic tourism market can be broken down into the following sub-categories<sup>1</sup>:

- a) The role of domestic tourism for Turkish tourism and the economy.
- b) The structure of the domestic tourism market from the viewpoint of supply.
- c) The main characteristics of domestic tourists and tourist behaviour.

The information relating to the above sub-categories had to be uncovered through extensive primary and secondary research, in order to understand the market and its characteristics before embarking on a serious research project of this scale.

The researcher is happy to report that there is now an increasing awareness about domestic tourism in Turkey for which, at least in parts, the efforts of this researcher have been influential through his numerous correspondence and meetings with tourism ministry officials, academics, and industry experts at various levels.

Rather than presenting the description, analysis and interpretation of findings relating to the general knowledge of tourism industry here on its own, it would be more appropriate to discuss these issues under the two of the categories mentioned in 6.2.0, ie findings related to the demand and supply side within the framework outlined by three key questions.

### **6.2.2 The Supplier's Perspective**

Findings relating to the suppliers are of paramount importance as they are influential in understanding the present marketing communications practices of the market players, namely travel agencies, in this case. The findings from the supplier's perspective can be grouped into three main interrelated areas of:

- i) ownership structure
- ii) organisation structure

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<sup>1</sup> For a detailed analysis of the Turkish domestic tourism market see chapter 4.

- iii) the marketing activities in general and the marketing communications in particular.

The findings relating to the organisation structure and marketing activities will be discussed simultaneously since the interest is not in the ownership structure per se, but rather its influence on the role and potential of marketing communications.

#### **6.2.2.1 Ownership Structure**

The review of literature, with reference to a number of researchers<sup>2</sup>, together with the findings of key informant interviews and observations established that in Turkey, travel agencies and accommodation establishments are mainly owned by small independent individuals and families. Based on their individual and family entrepreneurial style of ownership, the organisation and operation of these travel agencies resemble the *power culture* described by Harrison (1972), where an organisation's culture depends on the central power source (the owner), with rays of power and influence spreading from this central figure. Kakabadse *et al.* (1988) and Handy (1988) argued that in power culture-oriented organisations, trust, empathy, and loyalty to the superiors were more important than professionalism, and the organisation functioned through subordinates anticipating the wishes, decisions and attitudes of those at the top.

Additionally, based on the findings of Islamoglu (1991), Kocer (1998), Yarkan (1998) and TURSAB (1996 and 1999), it also emerged in the key informant interviews that large travel agencies owned only a few of the travel agency outlets directly. This was based on the need of travel agencies to establish convenience for the customers and have a wider distribution network for reaching the customers in the most cost-effective way possible. Therefore, large travel agencies worked with smaller independent travel agencies on a pre-determined commission basis. However, this meant that, to a certain extent, some of the control held by large travel agencies over their operations had to be relinquished. This is important, as in the marketing communications of travel agencies, all of the outlets appear to be under one brand and

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<sup>2</sup> See chapter three for research findings of Kocer (1998), Islamoglu (1991), Yarkan (1998) and TURSAB (1996 and 1999).

the customer is in the belief that they are purchasing a holiday product from a *branch* of a large travel agency. This required, on the part of larger travel agencies, the employment of mechanisms for quality assurance and control to ensure that their brand name is protected.

The findings of the key informant interviews also suggested that structural changes mentioned by Islamoglu (1991), Kocer (1998), Yarcın (1998) and TURSAB (1996 and 1999) were taking place in the domestic tourism market in the form of vertical and horizontal integration and takeovers among the market players. These changes are in line with the changes taking place in the tourism industry worldwide (Knowles and Grabowski, 1999).

Some of these changes were pre-planned arising from a need to establish competitive advantage and some were not planned, but a response to adverse circumstances. For instance, a number of travel agencies and accommodation establishments which were unable to repay bank loans were taken over by banks (Keskin, 1999).

#### **6.1.2.2 Organisation Structure and Marketing Activities**

In 6.2.2.1 based on Harrison (1972), Handy (1988) and Kakabadse *et al.*'s (1988) research, it was briefly explained that the ownership structure prevalent within a firm may influence the values, the level of professionalism and so on. Based on the key informant interviews' findings, the current ownership pattern of travel agencies has been influential in the formation of the organisation structure of travel agencies and their operations. The findings of the key informant interviews pointed to a lack of a marketing orientation and the tendency towards a selling orientation. During the key informant interviews, nearly all interviewees stated that they had formal marketing departments in their travel agencies. However, probed to find out what activities were carried out by these marketing departments, the key informants were unable to provide a systematic outline of the activities.

Furthermore, both the understanding and the implementation of the marketing concept was limited to two marketing communications methods only:

- a) Advertising (in the form of newspaper advertisements and brochures)
- b) Personal selling by sales staff.

The responses of a majority of the key informants indicated that what they understood from marketing was limited to *advertising* only. A few of the key informants were able to add personal selling in addition to advertising. This may be attributable both to the lack of professionalism and the infancy of domestic tourism as a sector. Murphy and McGarrity's (1978) research findings in the USA in the late 1970s bear resemblance to the findings of this research. Murphy and McGarrity (1978) carried out a survey to measure what American college administrators, who were responsible for marketing their colleges to prospective students, understood from marketing. The findings of Murphy and McGarrity's (1978) research indicated that 90% of the 300 respondents stated that marketing was concerned with, advertising and public relations. Another survey carried out by Channon (1986), again in the USA in another service industry, showed that the prevailing notion of marketing in the banking sector during the 1950s was limited to advertising, sales promotion and publicity.

Contrary to what key informants in the domestic tourism market thought, marketing is clearly a much broader concept than advertising and personal selling. As explained in 2.1, the marketing concept consists of integrated activities related to the anticipation and identification of customer needs and the satisfaction of these needs through developing appropriate marketing mix strategies (Kotler, 1997).

Additionally, the responses given by key executives in travel agencies relating to their customers showed that they did not really know their customers, and used a shotgun approach in their marketing and their marketing communications activities. Some of the responses by the key executives included the following:

"Anybody and everybody in this country is our customer. We do not distinguish. Everybody who enters our premises is our customer. We are here to make everybody happy. That is why 100% of our sales come from our loyal customers"! (A Key Executive)

“Research shows that everybody is our customer. We also know our customers because almost all of them are our loyal customers, who purchase their holidays from us, year after year”. (A Key Executive)

“It doesn’t matter for us who. Anyone who wants to have an unforgettable holiday comes to us”. (A Key Executive)

In contrast to key executives, the majority of the sales staff at travel agencies were able to mention the characteristics of their customers, though not particularly systematically. Key executives’ definition of their customers as “everybody in Turkey” or “anybody in Turkey” showed a lack of research in determining their customers in terms of their geo-demographic and motivational characteristics, and a lack of an integrated marketing concept. It also showed that there was a lack of coordination in terms of the dissemination of information between the sales staff and the executives.

An understanding of geo-demographic and motivational characteristics form the basis of a marketing communications/advertising programme, usually called the five Ms (Kotler, 1998):

- What are the marketing communications/advertising objectives? (Mission)
- How much can be spent? (Money)
- What message should be conveyed? (Message)
- What media should be used? (Media)
- How should the results be evaluated? (Measurement)

Consequently, it can be stated that the understanding of the marketing concept by the key informants in the domestic market is extremely limited, and would be expected to lead to serious problems in terms of both the efficiency and the effectiveness of travel agencies. Efficiency and effectiveness are assumed to be sought by organisations

(Buchanan and Huczynski, 1985), and can be respectively defined as “doing (accomplishing) things right” and “doing the right things” (Drucker, 1967). By this token, it appears that travel agencies are not effective, due to failure in implementing all of the range of integrated marketing activities outlined above.

The efficiency of the two marketing communications activities used in this market, advertising and personal selling, will be discussed under the two separate headings of:

- the role and potential of advertising in the Turkish domestic tourism market; and;
- the role and potential of personal selling in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

One of the important findings, which emerged from the key informant interviews, was that both the newspaper advertisements and the brochures were designed by the travel agency staff in-house, without getting professional help from advertising/ marketing communications agencies. The reasons put forward by the key informants for this can be grouped under two main headings:

- a) Key informants thought that the services of advertising agencies were expensive and in domestic tourism market profit margins were small.
- b) Key informants did not believe that professional advertising or marketing communications agencies would make an effective contribution to their communication activities.

Based on the advertising spending figures of some of the large domestic travel agencies (See Table 6.1), the expense issue put forward above by the key executives can be questioned due to the following:

- Several advertising agencies were contacted by telephone to find out whether they had clients whose advertising expenditures were less than the advertising spending of the travel agencies given in table 6.1. The advertising agencies had clients with



annual advertising expenditures as little as \$50 000. This means that, at least medium to large sized travel agencies should be in a position to use the services of professional marketing communications or advertising agencies.

- Additionally, based on the information that the total advertising spending in Turkey was \$800 million, \$1250 million and \$1230 million in 1996, 1997 and 1998, the advertising spending of these six travel agencies represent about 1.8%, 0.8% and 1.1% respectively of total advertising spending in the country<sup>3</sup>. This means that the amount of advertising spending by these major travel agencies is not negligible, and such a large amount of advertising expenditure, which can be considered as a significant piece of investment, justifies the use of the services of professional marketing communications or advertising agencies.

	1996	1997	1998
Travel Agency	\$ *	\$ *	\$*
<b>DURU</b>	5.085.032	1.880.093	2605123
<b>ETS</b>	4.884.170	2.758.771	3536231
<b>ASYA TUR</b>	710.635	1.260.000	2250236
<b>MILTUR</b>	526.829	870.106	1361745
<b>SETUR</b>	738.368	1.261.768	1009059
<b>IREMTUR</b>	2.267.449	1.710.966	2719786
<b>Total</b>	14.212.483	9.741.704	13.482.181

Table 6.1 Advertising Spending of Some of the Leading Domestic Travel Agencies in Turkey – Source Deniz Reklam Etüdleri Limited, Bir Alt Sektürün (Turizm) Reklam Harcamaları, 1996,1997,1998.

As no travel agency has used the services of an advertising agency yet, the second reason put forward by the key executives, which was based on their suspicion about the contribution of marketing communications agencies, remains a judgemental evaluation without supporting evidence.

Even the sheer amount of advertising spending of some of the travel agencies alone is sufficient to reflect the significance attached to newspaper advertisements by these travel agencies. The findings of the primary research in the initial interviews, observations, focus group studies and final interviews seem largely to justify the amount of spending by some of these travel agencies at least in quantitative terms.

<sup>3</sup> Reklam Yatırımları, 1996, 1997 ve 1998, Reklamcılar Dernegi Raporları. Source: <http://rd.org.tr/sektor/harcamalar96.html> , <http://rd.org.tr/sektor/harcamalar97.html> and <http://rd.org.tr/sektor/harcamalar98.html>

For instance, in the initial interviews with tourists, the statements made by the interviewees support the view that to a great extent, they rely on the information provided in newspaper advertisements. Six of the couples stated that the information search, by collecting and analysing information from newspaper advertisements, started immediately after they decided to go on a holiday. On the other hand, the rest of the couples (four) said that the first thing they did after deciding to go on a holiday was to determine where to go, ie determination of the region or the holiday resort, followed by the collection and analysis of information (comparing features of various package holidays) from newspaper advertisements.

The observations in the travel agencies seem to confirm the findings of the initial interviews. That is, customers visit the travel agency to purchase a pre-determined holiday. In almost all of the cases, the prelude to the interaction at the travel agency included the asking of the availability of a pre-determined package holiday by the potential customers. It was also observed that the role of the sales staff was more of a clerical nature, in terms of getting the paperwork ready, rather than marketing a holiday package. The vast majority of the potential customers who came to the travel agencies referred to a particular package holiday which they had seen advertised in a newspaper. In the cases of unavailability of that particular holiday, the customers then asked about other holiday packages available. The practice in the Turkish domestic tourism market appears contrary to the recommendations of Holloway and Robinson (1995), who argued that as the customer -personnel interface is high in the travel and tourism sector, special attention needs to be paid to the personal selling activity and the social and interpersonal skills of the sales staff.

Only in two cases did potential customers state that they had planned to go on a holiday, and did not know where to go. They therefore asked for advice from the travel agency sales staff.

In the fourth stage of the primary research, there was one more opportunity to confirm the findings in the previous stages of research regarding, the role of newspaper advertisements in the holiday decision making process. The panellists, both in the female focus group and in the male focus group, emphasised the role of newspaper

advertisements. In the focus group study with females it appeared that newspaper advertisements were a very crucial source of information for their decision making.

Lastly, in the final interviews there were two further opportunities to find out about the role of information sources in their decision making. In the first one, interviewees were asked to indicate the frequency of use (from 1 to 5; 1 meaning a very low frequency and 5 meaning a very high frequency) and the value attached (again from 1 to 5; 1 meaning a very low value and 5 meaning a very high value) to a number of sources of information, including brochures, newspaper advertisements, travel agency staff, friends and relatives and the own experience of the individual interviewees. Newspaper advertisements emerged as one of the most important sources of information (See Table 6.2 and Graph 6.1) with a relatively higher average

Sources of Information	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2
	Frequency	Value Attached
	Average Mean Score (out of 5)	Average Mean Score (out of 5)
Newspaper Advertisements	3,9	3,6
Brochures	3	3
Past Holiday Experience	3,7	3,8
Friends and relatives	1,5	1,7
Travel agency sales staff	3	2

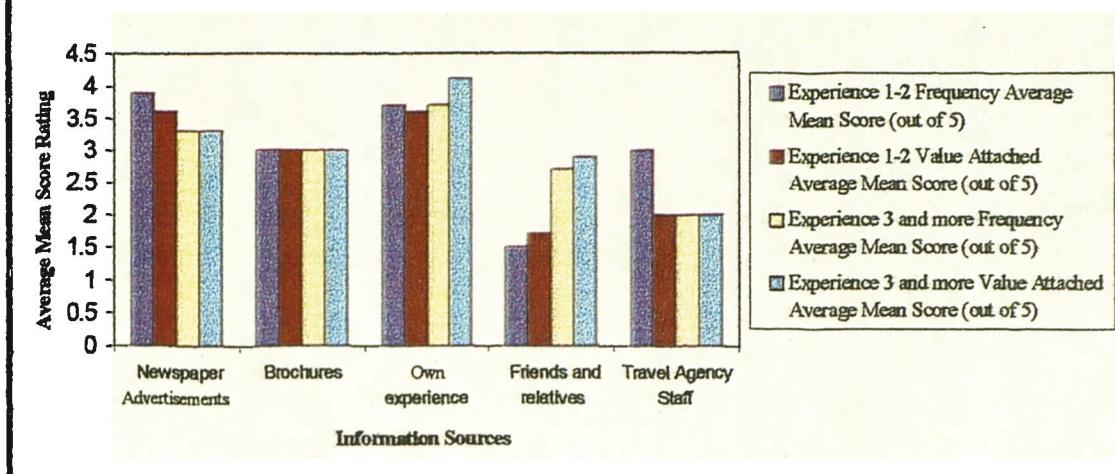
Sources of Information	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more
	Frequency	Value Attached
	Average Mean Score (out of 5)	Average Mean Score (out of 5)
Newspaper Advertisements	3,3	3,1
Brochures	3	3
Past Holiday Experience	3,7	4,1
Friends and relatives	2,7	2,9
Travel agency sales staff	2	2

Table 6.2 Frequency of the Sources of Information Used by Tourists and the Value Attached to Each Source of information

mean score rating, both in terms of the frequency of use and the value attached to this source (See Appendix 5-D)

The average mean score ratings were calculated separately both for consumers with low level of package holiday experience (1-2) and relatively high levels of package holiday experience (3 and more).

Graph 6.1 Information Sources - The Frequency of Use and the Value Attached



According to the interviewees, the newspaper advertisements with an average mean score rating of 3.9 (for consumers with little experience ie 1-2 of package holidays) and 3.3 (for consumers with experience three and more of package holidays) appear to be a significant source of information. The interviewees also seemed to attach a significant value to the newspaper advertisements as a source of information with 3.6 and 3.1 average mean score ratings. Table 6.2 shows that, with the increase of package holiday use, the frequency of the use of newspaper advertisements decreases slightly, together with the value attached to newspaper advertisements as a source of information. With the increase in consumer experience in package holiday use, interviewees seem to rely on more on their past experiences.

There was a second opportunity to find out about the role of information sources for interviewees, when the stages of decision making process were analysed. Here it appeared that, 88% of the package holiday users resorted to newspaper advertisements as a source of information and the collection and analysis of information from newspaper advertisements. With the increase in the experience of package holidays, the frequency of newspaper advertisements' use in the decision making increased from 85% to 90%<sup>4</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> It is noted here that, though it can be regarded as minor, there is a discrepancy of the findings of the interviews, in terms of the use of newspapers in relation to the level of package holiday experience. As it is shown in Table 6.2, there is a slight decrease in the use of newspapers (from 3.9 to 3.3) as the experience level of of package holiday of the interviewees increases. On the other hand, in the later part of the interviews where the researcher attempted to determine the decision making process in terms of its various activities, it appeared that the newspaper use increased from 85% to 90% with the

Interviewees were asked to put the various activities they went through before making their holiday decision into a sequential order. When the MODE and the MEDIAN of the responses of the interviewees were calculated, it appeared that both the MODE and the MEDIAN were 1 both for using newspaper advertisements as a source of information and for the determination of holiday site/region/resort. This means that information collection together with the determination of holiday region/town was the first activity in the holiday decision making process. While the MODE of the determination of the holiday region as an activity was 1, both for interviewees with lower and higher levels of package holiday experience, the MEDIAN changed from 1 to 2 with the increase in package holiday experience.

In addition to newspaper advertisements, brochures were another marketing communications tool used by the travel agencies. As in the case of newspaper advertisements, brochures were also designed by the travel agency staff in-house. In the key informant interviews, it appeared that key informants did not attach a high level of significance to brochures as a marketing communications medium. However, in contrast to the perception of the key informants in travel agencies, consumers seemed to use brochures frequently and they attached a relatively high value to them as a source of information. The average mean score rating, both for the frequency of use and the value attached to this source of information, was 3.

Furthermore, 91.1% (overall) of interviewees indicated that they used brochures in their decision making process. The use of brochures as a source of information appears to increase from 88% to 92 % with the increase in the package holiday experience. However, as it was also observed in the travel agency observations, the first time the consumers come into contact with brochures is when they visit the travel agencies to make a purchase. Customers do not receive holiday brochures before making their holiday decisions. This is a significant finding as it appears that when consumers visit the travel agency they have already made their decision to purchase a specific holiday package. This finding was further supported in the focus group

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increase in experience of the interviewees. Based on the findings of the focus group studies and initial exploratory interviews, the researcher is able to conclude that the use of newspaper advertisements decrease slightly with the increase in the level of package holiday experience. This is mainly attributable to the fact that, with the increase in holiday experience, consumers appear to rely on relatively more on their own past experience in making their holiday decisions.

studies, where consumers stated that they used brochures to take home to think over their decision altogether as a family after the purchase. In the travel agency observations, it was noted that customers asked for a brochure for the first time when they came to the travel agency. The use of brochures in the pre-holiday decision-making process seems to be almost non-existent. This, based on the information collected in the interviews with key informants, is attributable to the short period of time between making the decision and taking the holiday, a lack of customer databases, and an ineffective postal system in the country. Additionally, the key informants suggested that as a result of chronic inflation in Turkey over the years (as much as 6% a month) (Ekonomist, 1999), they were unable to include price information in the brochures, which according to them made the sending out brochures to customers pointless.

In the final interviews, where the respondents were asked to put the activities relating to their buying behaviour into order, both the MODE and the MEDIAN of using brochures was 6 (for consumers with little experience ie 1-2 of package holidays). When the package holiday experience increased to three or more, the MODE for using brochures as a source of information became 5 and the MEDIAN became 4. This suggests that interviewees did not use brochures in their pre-decision making process. The finding about the use of brochures in the Turkish domestic tourism market contradicts the views of Season (1989), Middleton (1994) and Holloway and Robinson (1994) who emphasised the role of brochures as a source of information in the consumer decision-making of tourists.

As Turkish domestic tourists use brochures after they have purchased their holidays, this may mean that brochures are being used to reduce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), ie to reduce discomfort about the purchase after the purchase decision. Rice (1993) suggested that the magnitude of dissonance will be proportional to:

- The significance of decision.

For most domestic holiday makers, the holiday decision is significant in

the sense that the cost of going on a holiday may represent as much as 20% of a Turkish family's annual budget (TURSAB, 1999). Additionally, for a great majority of people, there may be only one opportunity to go on a holiday in a year.

- The attractiveness of the rejected alternatives  
These may include other package holidays from the same travel agency or other package holidays from other travel agencies.
- The negative characteristics of the choice made  
Consumers may not be in a position to find out about the negative characteristics of a package holiday before actually consuming it.
- The number of options considered.

## ii) Personal Selling by Sales Staff

Table 6.2 and Graph 6.2 show that the role of the sales staff is not perceived as a significant one by the interviewees in relative terms, as they gave them an average mean rating score of 3 (for consumers with little experience ie 1-2 of package holidays) and 2 (for consumers with experience, three and more of package holidays). The value attached to information given by sales staff also appears to be low - 2 (both for customers with little experience and relatively higher levels of experience). This finding is rather important since all key informants in the interviews, without exception, stated that they placed a very strong importance on the role of the sales staff. Some of the comments made by key executives at travel agencies regarding their sales staff included the following:

"Our sales staff are our lifeblood. They are the people we appreciate most. They have established the prestigious brand image we have by their hard work. Of course, without our high quality training this would not have been possible". (A Key Executive)

"Anyone can produce a product or a service. The real skill is in convincing the customers. This is what my sales staff do effectively". (A Key Executive)

“They are the people who have put us well ahead of competition. And we reward them accordingly”.  
(A Key Executive)

“We are here to sell holidays to our customers. My sales staff are trained to make customers happy by selling them holidays they desire. (A Key Executive)

The difference of perception of the service provided by the sales staff among the interviewees and the key informants is important. The researcher believes that the reasons for the apparent low quality level of service are attributable to the ownership structure of travel agencies. Large travel agencies do not have much control over the activities of small travel agencies and their sales staff, who sell the holidays of large travel agencies on a commission basis. According to key informants, the commission received by smaller travel agencies ranged between 5 to 10%. In order to cover their overheads and make a profit, these smaller travel agencies are very much pressed to make a sale which push them to adopt a sales oriented approach in their management. Hence, the smaller travel agencies are not particularly worried about the brand image of large travel agencies whose package holidays they sell. As some of the interviewees in the initial exploratory interviews stated, consumers do not seem to trust the travel agency personnel as they found them insincere, and interviewees stated that sales staff at travel agencies *would do anything to make a sale* including providing incorrect information. As stated in Chapter 2, behaviour, ie the purchase and the use of a product, may influence the attitudes of consumers. In this case unsatisfied customers will have a negative attitude towards the travel agency. Therefore, sales staff, rather than enhancing a positive attitude towards a product may endanger the establishment of positive future attitudes of the customers towards the firm. As was discussed in Chapter 2 when attitude and behaviour relationship was discussed, behaviour, ie experience of using a product or service can influence future attitudes (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1991). Then, it may be more difficult to change the attitudes of potential customers.

Based on the findings relating to the marketing communications activities of travel agencies, it appears that the following areas need to be evaluated by the management of travel agencies:



- The relationships with smaller travel agencies and the training of their staff. The formation of a franchise agreement with smaller travel agencies, where franchisee travel agencies agree to the terms of the franchisor, in terms of product/service delivery, protection of the brand image of the franchisor.
- The ascertaining of customers' requirements through market research as there are problems in terms of the identification of the target market and hence the target audience. While customers do not trust sales staff at travel agencies as a reliable source of information, travel agency staff (managers and sales staff) are not aware of this.
- The integration of marketing *communications efforts*.  
Furthermore, the individual marketing *communications activities do not appear to* have clear aims and objectives. The only marketing communications tools used by travel agencies are advertising (in the form of newspaper advertisements and brochures) and personal selling.
- The role and effectiveness of brochures  
As has been seen earlier, brochures as a source information do not have any role in the pre-purchase decision stage. They are used to reduce the cognitive dissonance after the purchase. However, customers seem to place relatively high significance on brochures. The management of travel agencies are not aware of the fact that customers value brochures and they do not make any efforts to change the role of brochures from reducing cognitive dissonance to an informative and persuasive source of information in the holiday decision making process. (See Chapter 7).

### 6.2.3 The Consumer's Perspective

The findings relating to the demand side, ie findings relating to the customers, will be presented, analysed and interpreted under the following two headings:

- 1 The consumer decision making process.
- 2 Marketing communications activities.

In order to be able to understand and explore the consumer decision making process and its relationship with marketing communications, first the motivations of tourists for going on a holiday need to be analysed.

#### **6.2.3.1 Main Motives for Domestic Holidays**

Based on the fact that families with children represent as much as 76% of the whole domestic tourism market in Turkey (Capital, 1999), and 86% of holidays take place between the months of April and October as sun and sea holidays (TURSAB, 1999), in the motives, ie the driving forces to satisfy a felt need which cause individuals to behave in a certain manner (Guirdham, 1996), of this large group of customers are significant. The motives and the characteristics of consumers are believed to influence their consumption patterns. Therefore, the study of motives and the characteristics of customers are important in designing appropriate marketing communications messages.

The research findings in the first two stages of the research, ie the initial interviews with tourists and key informant interviews, pointed out that the main motives for domestic holidays were rest and relaxation, followed by the need for safe and secure environment for children. This finding is in line with the findings of research carried out by TEMPO (1999), which outlined rest, tranquillity, relaxation, safety, and fun as the main push factors for domestic holidays. In fact, all of the ten couples who participated in the interviews stated rest and relaxation as their primary reason for domestic holidays. Of these, 8 females and 4 males stated that they were also interested in the safety of their children.

Although, both females and males stated rest and relaxation as the primary motives for domestic holidays, the elements that they want to rest from appear to be different. Some of the comments made by the participants were as follows:

“This is the only time I don’t have to do any cooking and cleaning. I wish it could be like this forever. I feel like all my batteries are recharged here.” (A female interviewee)

“Sometimes after a hard day’s work, coming home having to cook for the family and having to listen to my children’s screams and shouts, I feel this is the end of the world. Here, I can rest and relax and forget everything” (A female interviewee).

“I get up everyday at 6:30 to be ready for my work at 9:00. The daily traffic just kills me. And all the weird people you have to be friendly with. It is a pity we have only a week or so in a year to rest. It is enough to give me shivers just to think about the next week at work”. (A male interviewee).

“We have a summer house by the beach, about eighty kilometres from here. When we first bought it we used to go there every summer. But it was never a proper holiday for me. I ended up doing the cooking and cleaning and so on. I was spending most of my time in the house. Perhaps, it was a nice and cosy holiday for my husband and children, but I never enjoyed it as much. But it is different here. I truly rest and relax. I do not have to watch children all the time. People, here, look after them”. (A female interviewee).

“In the apartment block we live in there are 38 families. You look around and see just ugly buildings. You go out and you see thousands of cars in the streets. You go to work and you have to work with people you never wanted to be together. I think these holidays help me keep my sanity. Here, I can forget everything and relax” (A male interviewee).

While males stated that they wanted to be away in general from daily stress in terms of work, traffic and pollution, females were more interested in getting away from the household chores. Given the fact that 8 of the females who participated in the interviews were working on full-time jobs, this finding may seem to be interesting which may be biased. However, it is not easy to determine whether their responses are based on the fact that females find household chores such as cooking, cleaning looking after children, etc., as more difficult than their professional job tasks at their work places or males do not engage in household chores anyway so that they do not need an escape from them. This brings up the issue of the complexity of holiday motives and the difficulties in understanding the true motives of tourists which was put forward by researchers like Jafari (1987) and Dann (1997). Another example to emphasise the complexity of holiday motives can be given from the Turkish domestic tourism market. According to research carried out by Turkish Travel Agencies Association (TURSAB, 1999) Turkish domestic tourists largely prefer spending their summer holidays in commercial accommodation establishments with swimming pools

even though these establishments may be situated next to the sea. This may be caused by a motive on the part of domestic tourists to satisfy their status needs (Maslow, 1968), as many of them may not have a chance to swim in a swimming pool in their daily lives due to high costs of swimming club memberships and or high entry fees. This example also illustrates the point of view of Jafari (1987) and Graburn (1983) who described tourism as a movement away from an ordinary life to a non-ordinary. In other words, domestic tourists, when they were on a holiday, want to do things they do not normally do in their daily lives. Therefore, the basic motives of Turkish domestic tourists bear a resemblance to the motives explained by Graburn (1983), Jafari (1987), and Crick (1989) who emphasised the movement away from an ordinary daily mundane life to a non-ordinary life for rest and relaxation.

It must be stated that rest and relaxation are not common specific motives of Turkish families alone. For instance, in the USA, Lee and Norman's (1996) research on tourism behaviour and attitudes in different family life cycles, concluded that young married couples with children were particularly interested in rest and relaxation while young singles were mostly action orientated. Yavuz *et al.* (1998) who carried out research into the travel motives of Turkish tourists visiting North Cyprus (outbound tourism activity) discovered that, in addition to the motives of rest and relaxation, the fun seeking also appeared to be significant. This may be attributed to the fact that the majority of the Turkish people (57%) who visit North Cyprus are singles, in contrast to the domestic tourism activity in Turkey, where the majority of tourists (86%) who engage in domestic tourism are families.

Key informant interviews with 12 executives (managers responsible for domestic tourism market in a travel agency) and 16 sales representatives from 12 travel agencies indicated that in general, travel agency staff were aware of the motives of their customers. However, it was surprising for the researcher to find that about one third of the executives clearly lacked a deeper understanding of their customers' needs and motives. Given the fact that customers usually interact with sales representatives, it was not unusual to see that almost all of the sales representatives had an understanding of their customers' needs and motivations. There was a lack of coordination in terms of collecting, analysing and disseminating information in travel agencies. The managers of travel agencies were also unaware of the fact that current

newspaper advertisements were not seen as satisfactory by tourists in helping them make a holiday decision.

Based on the lack of information about the customers mentioned above, it is not surprising that Turkish travel agencies, in their factual newspaper advertisements, use only the attributes of the destination and the holiday package (pull factors) without any reference to the push factors. Marketing communications messages using both pull and push appeals would appear to have superiority over messages which use only one type of pull or push appeals. Using only pull factors in the marketing communications represents a product-oriented approach, ignoring the demand, ie the needs and the desires of the consumers. Many general consumer buyer behaviour models such as Kotler's (1998), Assael's (1995) and Peter and Olson's (1996), together with specific tourism consumer behaviour models such as Goodall's (1995) and Witt and Moutinho's (1995), see needs and desires of the consumers as the starting point and hence place significant emphasis on them. Most of the marketing communication models which explain how consumer behaviour toward a product can be established or changed, emphasise the needs and desires of the consumers. Based on the premise that "buyers purchase neither tangible objects or intangible features; rather they purchase a bundle of benefits" (Enis and Roering, 1981), it may be suggested that the provision of both pull and push factors in marketing communication messages can show customers the instrumentality of a holiday package in satisfying their needs.

#### **6.2.3.2 Motives and Tourist Typologies**

Having discussed, analysed and interpreted the findings relating to tourist motives, it is necessary to consider how motives can influence the process of categories of tourists.

According to the characteristics of the tourist typologies discussed in 3.5.0, Turkish domestic tourists seem to fall in to the *Sun Lover (SNL)*, *Organised Mass Tourists (OMT)* and *Independent Mass Tourists (IMT)* categories in Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992) model. Additionally, the characteristics of Cohen's (1972) *Organised Mass Tourist*, *Individual Mass Tourist* and Westvlaams Ekonimsch Studiebureau's (1986)

*Family-Oriented Sun and Sea Lovers* appear to be describing the features of Turkish domestic tourists. As has been seen, in broad terms, Turkish domestic tourists can be classified as psychocentrics (Plog, 1974).

In Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992) research, it appears that Organised Mass Tourists and other lower stimulation –seeking types, as referred to by Wahlers and Etzel (1985), may not, in fact, be true stimulation avoiders, but may be low risk takers. Unlike Organised Mass Tourists, Independent Mass Tourists avoid package vacations in order to be more spontaneous and independent. Thus, while Independent Mass Tourists prefer more tranquil environments, they appear to seek novelty and change associated with less familiar environments (X-axis), as opposed to the more arousal-producing, stimulus overloading tension of the Y-axis. Islamoglu's (1995) research findings are supportive of Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992). Furthermore in his research, Islamoglu (1995) found the following differences between the Independent Mass Tourists (IMT) and Organised Mass Tourists (OMT) visiting Turkey:

- Although the organised package holidays are relatively cheaper than individual holidays, OMTs who prefer organised tours and holidays appear to be in higher income groups than IMTs. However, organised packaged holidays and tours have a standard of service quality while, IMTs may go for lower levels of service quality and service attributes for financial reasons.
- OMTs have relatively better education than IMTs.
- OMTs are greater risk avoiders than IMTs.

The above differences were found to be similar in Berksoy's (1994) survey on domestic tourists in Turkey.

Sun Lovers (SNL) seem to have a preference for high structured (X-axis) holidays in highly familiar and relatively tranquil environments. This may present an opportunity for the travel agencies operating in the Turkish domestic tourism market as 86% of the domestic tourists fall in to the category of Sun Lovers. According to the Turkish

Travel Agencies Association figures, 8% of the domestic tourists go on a holiday between the months of April and October for sun and sea holidays. Gray (1970) described this motive as *sunlust*. Tranquillity, rest and relaxation also appear to be the main preferences of Turkish domestic tourists (TEMPO, 1999).

In the Turkish domestic tourism market, Independent Mass Tourists (IMT) and Organised Mass Tourists (OMT) can be seen as two sub-categories of Sun Lovers (SNL). Although the amount of OMTs, ie the number of people go on package holidays organised by travel agencies is still low (15%), this is not a specific characteristic of Turkish domestic tourism market alone. For example, in the UK, the travel agency use for domestic holidays does not constitute more than 9% of all domestic holidays. However, considering the fact that domestic tourism in Turkey is an infant sector, and only became significant as late as 1993, many industry experts estimate a strong growth for the travel agency use. This means an increase in the number of OMTs. The past growth rate of the travel agency usage can be used as another indicator for its future growth potential. In Turkey, travel agency use increased by more than two hundred per cent between 1993 and 1997 (Gurkan, 1998) and can be confidently expected to increase thus in the future.

As mentioned in 3.1.3, travel expenditures of Turkish domestic tourists, increased from \$123 to \$315 between 1993 and 1998, and the WTTC estimated further growth in tourism expenditures per capita. Such statistics and forecasts strongly suggest the need for designing and implementing marketing communications strategies that are tailored more precisely to specific groups or consumers. In order to design and implement marketing communications tailored for the target market, marketing managers need to be able to classify groups of tourists according to their characteristics and identify the motives of people in the target market. In this way, the effectiveness of the marketing communications messages can be improved.

The positive developments mentioned in 3.0.1 might lead to the emergence in Turkey of other tourist roles such as Jetsetter (JST), Explorer (EXL), Action Seeker (ACT), etc. With the emergence of other tourist roles, tourism demand may be spread over the whole year rather than being crowded around the summer months. This would make the demand more manageable for the travel agencies and the accommodation

providers. Culligan (1992) suggested that the tourist's increasing desire for more novel, adventurous, and 'authentic' forms of tourism experience is a function of the decline in *utility* associated with a decision to simply replicate previous experience; an increasing ability to afford different forms of tourism. This means a move away from General Interest Tourism (GIT) towards Special Interest Tourism (SIT) (Brotherton and Himmetoglu, 1997). Krippendorf (1987a, b) argued that fundamental changes occurring in the tourism market in general are in line with the developments of new patterns of tourism consumption. He maintains that in the near future there will be a substantial decline in those tourists for whom *hedonism* is a dominant travel motive and for whom tourism is seen purely as a mechanism for recovery [rest] and liberation [escape from the ordinary]. Instead, the travel market will place emphasis on the environmental and social context in which tourism occurs, and the humanisation of travel (Krippendorf, 1987a, b). In fact what Krippendorf (1987a, b) is saying is that there will be a move from GIT to SIT with decreasing utility in hedonistically motivated holidays. Assuming that Krippendorf (1987a, b) and Culligan's (1992) views hold true for Turkish domestic tourism, the implications are clear.

In the light of the findings of Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) and Culligan (1992), it could then be recommended that, for the time being, Turkish travel agencies should emphasise the tranquillity, familiarity and high structuredness of their package holidays in their marketing communications for the Sun Lovers (SNL) and Organised Mass Tourists (OMT). On the other hand, to attract Independent Mass Tourists (IMT), the various activities and visits to local sights might be more effectively stressed, in addition to the advantages of a package holiday.

#### **6.2.3.3 Consumer Decision Making Process**

As marketing communications efforts are aimed at creating and increasing sales through attitude formation and change (Ogilvy, 1983), how consumers make their purchase decisions and what sort of stages do they go through before the final purchase decision is of paramount importance to marketing communicators. By understanding the consumer decision making process, marketing communicators can develop more effective marketing communications messages for the target audience.



Understanding and exploring the consumer decision making process with a view to analysing the present role and the potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market is useful. For this purpose, during the various stages of primary research, including the initial interviews with tourists, travel agency observations, focus group studies and final interviews, there has been an attempt to collect as much detailed information as possible.

For instance, in the initial interviews with tourists, interviewees were asked to list the activities/stages they went through before going on a holiday in a sequential order. Then, in the travel agency observations, it was possible to observe in action the activities mentioned by the interviewees in the initial interviews. Although, it was only possible to observe the activities/stages in the decision making process of tourists after the phase in which they decided to visit the travel agency, it was possible to think and infer about the previous activities/stages in the decision making process, based on the interactions between tourists and the travel agency staff.

Moreover, the focus group studies enabled the exploration and understanding of the decision making process further, in terms of family member roles and information sources used as well as confirming the findings in the previous stages of research. For example, it was surprising to observe in the focus group studies that the role of friends and relatives as a source of information in the holiday decision making process was very limited. From a theoretical standpoint, this finding appears to contradict the views of Webster (1991), Assael (1995), Witt and Moutinho (1995) Peter and Olson (1996) who emphasised the role of friends and relatives in influencing the choice of the consumer. Webster (1991) and Witt and Moutinho's (1995) research studies concentrated on the role of personal communication, ie word of mouth communication in services marketing. Witt and Moutinho (1995) argued that, due to the lack of physical evidence and the abstract qualities of services, consumers placed a greater emphasis on personal information sources. Webster (1991) in his evaluation of customers' expectations of various services, found that word of mouth communication had the strongest influence, followed by earlier experience, and thereafter advertising and sales promotion. Assael (1995) stressed the role of friends and relatives in influencing the consumer's choice compared with any other source of

information, due to the fact that that consumers placed greater emphasis on the credibility of the source.

Prior to the primary research, the researcher expected a high level of influence from friends and relatives due to the fact that Turkish culture is classified as a collectivist society (Hofstede, 1980) in which the importance of the group on the individual is relatively high. Additionally, as Hofstede's (1980) research showed that risk avoidance/risk aversion among Turkish people was high, ie Turkish people had a low tolerance for risk, it was expected that friends and relatives would be seen as dependable sources of information in reducing the perceived risk.

Both for interviewees with lower or relatively higher levels of package holiday experience, the MODE and the MEDIAN were 0 (zero) for collecting information from friends and relatives. However, when the frequency analysis of activities were analysed the following table for resorting to relatives and friends as a source of information emerged:

Activity 4 – Experience 1-2			Activity 4 - Experience more than 2		
Sequence	Frequency	%	Sequence	Frequency	%
0	17	65	0	28	33
1	1	3,8	1	9	10
2	4	15	2	3	3,5
3	2	7,7	3	0	0
4	2	7,7	4	3	3,5
5	0	0	5	0	0
6	0	0	6	0	0
7	0	0	7	0	0
8	0	0	8	21	24
9	0	0	9	22	26
More	0	0	More	0	0
n	26		n	86	

Table 6.3 Frequency of Resorting to Friends and Relatives as a Source of Information

As experience increases the percentage of tourists who do not use relatives and friends as a source of information decrease from 65% to 33%. However, the use of friends and relatives as a source of information is still relatively low compared with other sources of information as discussed above. It appears that interviewees to a greater extent do not resort to the word of mouth communication (travel agency sales staff and friends and relatives). Although some of the particular reasons for not using these

sources of information are given later in this chapter, the researcher feels that this may be attributable to general characteristics of Turkish people. For instance, Esmer (1999) in his social and political values research found that Turks individually had low confidence in other people in the society. Therefore, one of the reasons for low level of engagement in word of mouth communication might be explained by the fact that Turks have low confidence in other people in the society.

Later, in the final interviews, it was possible to identify the activities/stages in the holiday decision making process sequentially and more firmly together with identifying the influence of family members. The research was also able further to quantify data relating to the decision making process through calculating frequencies and percentages.

Based on the collective findings of the four stages of primary research, the following holiday decision making process has emerged:

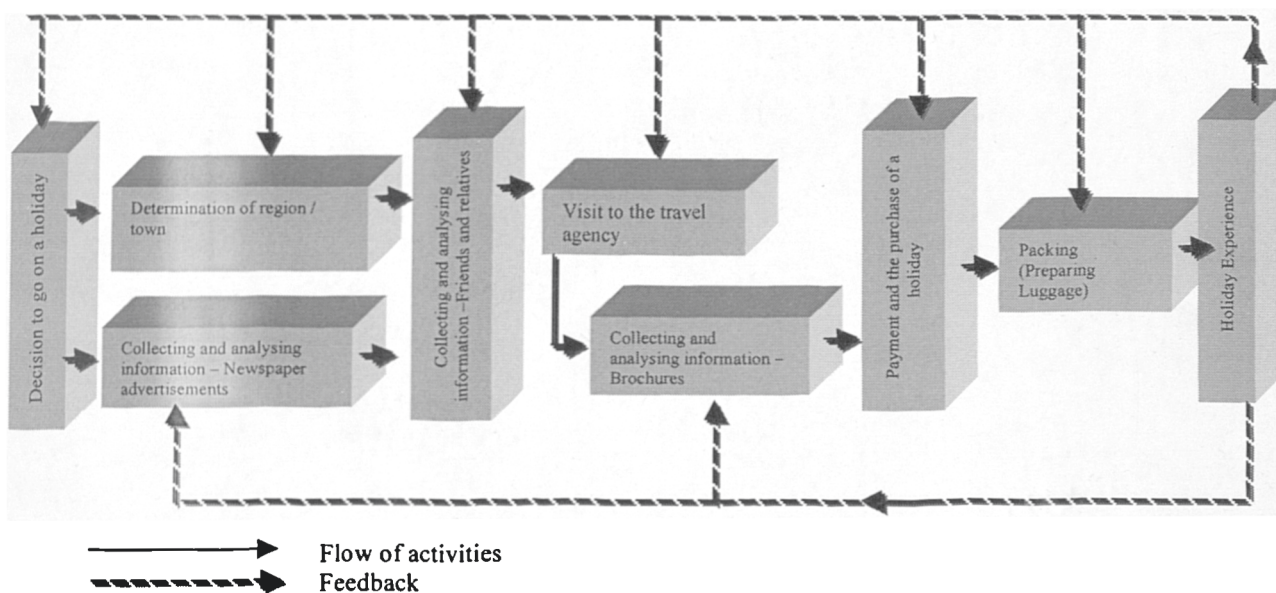


Figure 6.1 The Decision Making Process – Turkish Domestic Tourism Market

The final interviews were important in the sense that they enabled the researcher to quantify the findings related to the holiday decision-making process model (Figure 6.1). The following tables were designed based on the calculation of both the MODE and the MEDIAN of the responses given by the interviewees concerning the sequence of various holiday decision making activities or tasks. The responses of the interviews

were taken into account separately, for consumers with lower levels of package holiday experience (1-2) and for consumers with relatively higher levels of package holidays experience (3 and more):

Activities	Package holiday experience 1-2		Package holiday experience 3 and more	
	Sequence		Sequence	
	Mode	Median	Mode	Median
Packing	8	8	7	7
Determination of specific a holiday package	3	3	3	3
Collecting information - Newspaper advertisements	1	1	1	1
Collecting information - friends and relatives	0	0	0	0
Contacting the travel agency on the phone	4	4	0	3
Visit to the travel agency	5	5	4	4
Payment and purchase of holiday	6	6	6	6
Determination of region	1	1	1	2
Collecting information - Brochures	7	6	5	4

Table 6.4 The Stages in the Holiday Decision Making Process

One of the initial impressions of Table 6.4, is that the responses of interviewees with lower levels of experience and relatively higher levels of experience are very similar. It appears that the domestic holiday process starts with the simultaneous collection of information from newspaper advertisements and the determination of region. This emphasises the importance of newspaper advertisements once more as a source of information for the consumers, as newspaper advertisements have a significant influence on the rest of the activities. Interviewees, then, on the basis of newspaper advertisements, determine the package holiday they would like to purchase. Following the determination of a specific holiday package, interviewees contact the travel agency on the phone. Interviewees with lower levels of package holiday experience appear to first make the necessary payment and purchase the holiday and then browse through the brochures. On the other hand, interviewees with relatively higher levels of package holiday experience first browse through the brochures and then make their holiday purchase. For all interviewees, the final task before going on a holiday was packing.

#### 6.2.3.3.1 The Influence of Family Members in the Holiday Decision Making Process

After the determination of the decision making process in terms of the sequence of activities and tasks, the next important issue was to explore the influence, role and

involvement of family members in these various activities and tasks. The exploration of the family member influence was important from the viewpoint of the design of package holiday products and the design of marketing communications messages.

In the early stages of the research, both in the initial interviews and observations at travel agencies, the dominance of females (wives in the family) in the decision making process was noted. This dominance was not only inferred from the responses provided by the interviewees in the initial interviews. In the initial interviews females tended to be more eager to respond the questions which suggested that they are more involved in the holiday decision making process and more aware of issues related to the holiday decision. Additionally, in both focus group studies, it appeared that females were overwhelmingly influential in the holiday decision making process.

However, the findings of final interviews showed that the extent of involvement and influence of females in the holiday decision making, while significant, was much less than thought at the beginning (see Table 6.5).

In all of the various stages of primary research, females'/wives' role in information collection, especially from newspaper advertisements, was emphasised. This finding coupled with the fact that newspapers are an important source of information (see Table 6.2) is significant for marketing communicators in designing their marketing communications messages.

	Influence % Experience None*	Influence % Experience 1- 2	Influence % Experience more than 2
Females	14,7	25,2	26,4
Males	6,5	11,5	17,3
Children	10,0	0,0	0,5
Females and Males	3,9	37,2	27,1
Females and Children	3,6	1,7	2,1
Males and Children	2,9	0,4	0,3
All (Females, Males and Children)	1,4	6,8	6,5
No answer given	34,7 †	17,1	19,9

Table 6.5 Family Member Influence in the Holiday Decision Making Process

Females : wives; males: husbands

\*Independent tourists not using package holidays.

† A high percentage of no answer given by the independent tourists is attributable to the fact that they do not go through many of the stages package holiday users do.

Table 6.5, which is based on the frequency of responses of interviewees, shows that overall, the family holiday decision making is more or less characterised by a common decision making between females and males, ie wives and husbands who may be classified as OMTs (Organised Mass Tourists) in terms of their typology. This finding appears to be in line with Putnam and Davidson's (1980) research, which suggest that holiday decisions were made by both spouses in the family jointly. Some of the characteristics of the purchase decision making of domestic holidays resemble some of the situations in Sheth's (1974) lists, where he suggested that joint decision making may take place:

a) when the perceived level of risk is high. As mentioned in 6.1.2.2. For most domestic holiday makers, the holiday decision is significant in the sense the *cost of going on holiday* may represent as much as 20% of a Turkish family's annual budget (TURSAB, 1999).

b) when the purchasing decision is important to the family.

For a great majority of people there may be only one opportunity to go on a holiday in a year (TURSAB, 1999).

c) when there are few time pressures.

This does not appear to apply to domestic holiday decision in Turkey as consumers book quite late too, not being more than a week on average (Capital, 1999). However, if the consumers feel confident about the availability of package holidays from a number of travel agencies, they may feel relaxed in making a joint decision.

d) for certain demographic groups

Some of the demographic characteristics of Turkish families such as their middle to upper income levels, their stages in the family life cycle (Full Nest I and Full Nest II- See 2.3.4.1) and the age groups of spouses also resemble Sheth's (1974) description.

However, although joint decision making is dominant in the domestic holiday decision making process, the role of females in the overall holiday decision making

process is more significant than it seems at a first glance. Females appear to be influential in 25.2% (among tourists with experience of package holidays between 1-2) and in 26.4% (among tourists with experience of package holidays 3 and more) of the activities/tasks in the holiday decision making process. Males seem to have less influence/involvement in the family decision making as they seem to be influential or playing a part in only 11,5% (among tourists with experience of package holidays between 1-2) and 17,3 % (among tourist with experience of package holidays 3 and more) of the activities/tasks in the holiday decision making process.

Although the influence and the role of males seems to increase with the increase in holiday experience (from 11.5% to 17.3%), this is not caused by a decrease in the influence of females, as females' influence also seems to increase from 25.2% to 26.2%. With the increase in package holiday experience, the common decision making and involvement between females and males seem to decline significantly from 37.2% to 27.1%, which may be attributed to the fact that either of the partners is happy to delegate the decision to the other, more confident, as a result of experience, in their judgement (Assael, 1995).

Among tourists with no experience of package holidays, ie IMTs (Independent Mass Tourists), common decision making seems to be rather low with 3.9% of decisions being made by females and males together. Although, not as much as in the case of OMTs, females seem to be playing an important role (14%) in the family holiday process among IMTs too. It is interesting that children have a more significant role among IMTs with 10%. This may be attributed to the fact that in package holidays, the accommodation establishments offer a variety of facilities for everyone in the family, including children, while in independent holidays, the children's needs and desires need to be considered more, as what may be chosen by parents may not be suitable for the children.

When the individual activities are analysed the differences in terms of the influence/involvement of family members can be more easily seen (See Table 6.6 and Graph 6.2).



Activities	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2	Influence % Experience 1-2
	Females	Males	Children	Females & Males	Females & Children	Males & Children	Females, Males & Children
Preparation of luggage	78,9	3,8	0,0	15,4	3,8	0,0	0,0
Determination of a specific holiday package	18,0	7,7	0,0	38,0	7,7	3,8	18,0
Collecting information - Newspaper advertisements	50,0	7,7	0,0	23,1	3,9	0,0	0,0
Collecting information - friends and relatives	11,5	3,9	0,0	15,4	0,0	0,0	0,0
Contacting the travel agency on the phone	35,0	18,0	0,0	23,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Visit to the travel agency	12,0	12,0	0,0	58,0	0,0	0,0	3,8
Payment and purchase of holiday	11,5	42,3	0,0	34,8	0,0	0,0	3,9
Determination of region	7,7	7,7	0,0	68,2	0,0	0,0	7,7
Collecting information - Brochures	3,8	0,0	0,0	58,0	0,0	0,0	27,0

Activities	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more	Influence % Experience 3 and more
	Females	Males	Children	Females & Males	Females & Children	Males & Children	Females, Males & Children
Preparation of luggage	55,8	4,7	0,0	25,6	9,3	2,3	2,3
Determination of a specific holiday package	18,0	7,0	4,5	51,0	7,0	0,0	9,3
Collecting information - Newspaper advertisements	48,5	11,8	0,0	18,6	0,0	0,0	2,3
Collecting information - friends and relatives	20,9	7,0	0,0	7,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Contacting the travel agency on the phone	44,0	23,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Visit to the travel agency	18,0	33,0	0,0	21,0	0,0	0,0	2,3
Payment and purchase of holiday	18,6	48,8	0,0	23,3	0,0	0,0	2,3
Determination of region	7,0	9,3	0,0	62,8	0,0	0,0	14,0
Collecting information - Brochures	9,3	12,0	0,0	35,0	2,3	0,0	28,0

NB: Total percentages may not add up to 100% due to no answer given by the respondents.

Table 6.6 The Influence and the Role Played by Family Members in During the Holiday Decision Making Process

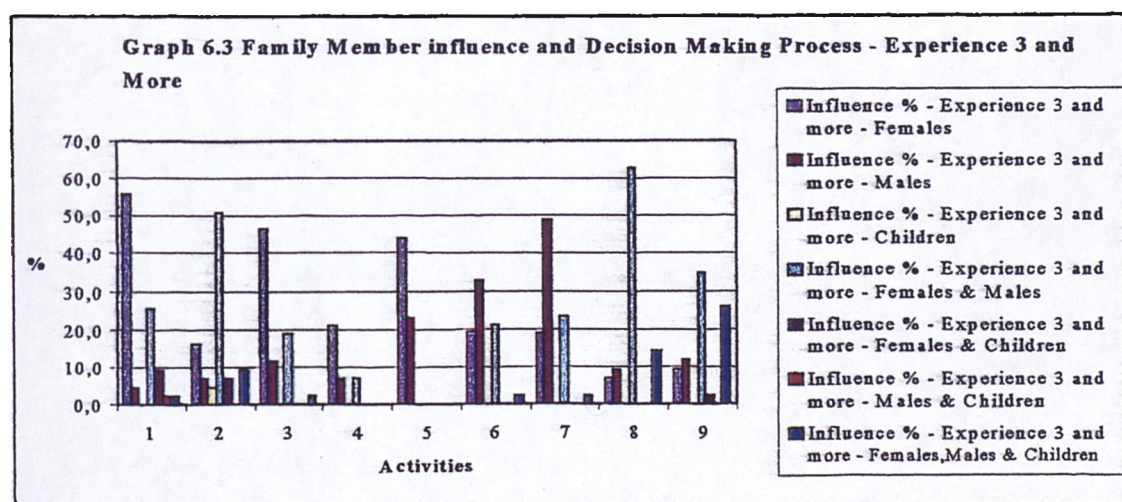
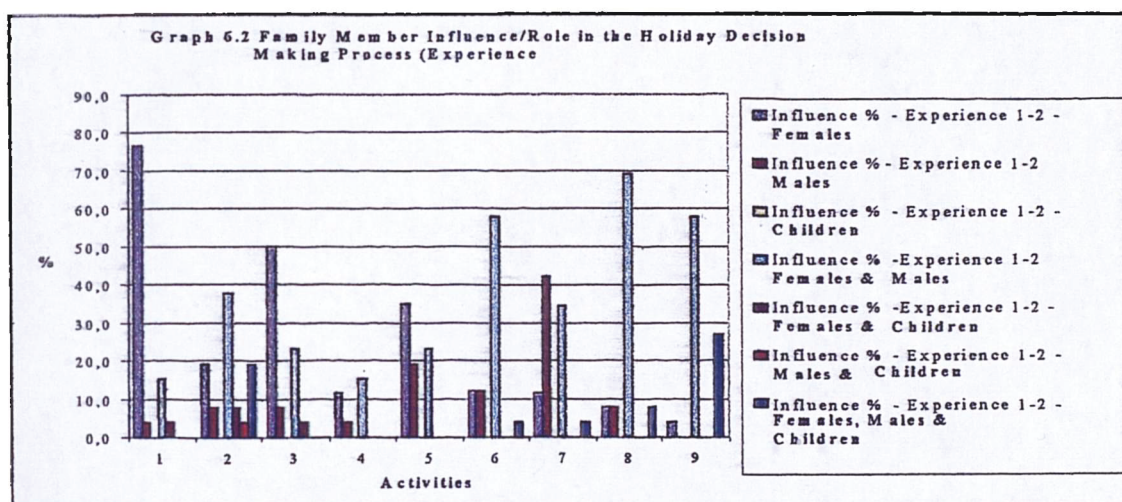




Table 6.6 and Graph 6.2 and 6.3 show that females are playing a more significant part in packing luggage (76.9%) and collecting information from newspaper advertisements (50%) than males. Although, packing luggage was not one of the activities/tasks in the decision making process, this item, based on the initial interviews, was included to give the interviewees a feeling of the whole process. With the increase in package holiday experience, it appears that females become less involved with packing luggage (55.8%) and the collection of information from newspapers decreases slightly from 50% to 46.5%. The findings of this research relating to family member influence appear to be in line with Bakan's (1966) research, which concluded that females are more affiliation oriented and they care more for the well-being of the group, and hence may engage themselves in more extensive information processing. Additionally, due to the affiliation orientation of females in their decision making, they may be expected to seek more approval from others (Bakan, 1966; Myers-Levy, 1985, 1988 and 1991) which may require extensive information processing to win the approval of others.

On the other hand, males seem to play a more significant part in the financial matters in terms of paying the travel agency. With the increase in experience, males' influence in the payment process increases from 42.3% to 48.8%. Males seem to have lower involvement in the collection of information from newspaper advertisements with 7.7% (among tourists with package holiday experience of between 1-2) and 11.6% (among tourists with package holiday experience of three and more). Females also seem to play a more important role in other information collection activities in terms of contacting friends and relatives and contacting the travel agency on the phone. Although females' influence may seem to be relatively low in the determination of a specific holiday package with 19% (among interviewees with lower levels of experience of package holidays) and 16 % (among interviewees with relatively higher levels of package holiday experience), they still seem to play a more significant role than males, whose influence ranges from 7.7 % (among interviewees with lower levels of experience of package holidays) and 7% (among interviewees with relatively higher levels of package holiday experience). Additionally, as females are more involved with information collection, it may be expected that females will have a greater role than the figures may represent in the holiday decision making process, as females will be relaying information to other members of family. The

roles played by females in the domestic holiday decisions resemble *the information gatherer, the influencer, the decision maker, and the consumer* according to the family purchase roles described by Assael (1995) (See 2.3.4.1). On the other hand, males, ie husbands, appear to assume the *the purchasing agent* role in families, though not to its full extent.

Children, as a whole do not seem to have any significant role in the overall holiday decision making process, as their role does not go beyond *the consumer*. This may be attributed to their age, as parents may be inclined to make decisions on behalf of their children in Full Nest I and Full Nest II stages of the family life cycle (Wells and Gubar, 1966). As stated by the participants in the focus groups, the initial interviews with tourists and the observations, families believe that for a holiday to be satisfactory, children's needs have to be satisfied. In fact, children have a greater role, as *consumers*, rather than as *customers* of domestic holidays as mentioned earlier on when motives for going on a holiday were explained. Additionally, the strong influence of women can be explained by the fact that women as mothers, due to traditional roles, are more aware of children's needs than men (Deem, 1993). Additionally, based on Carlson and Grossberg's (1988) parent characteristics explained in 2.3.4.1, in general, Turkish parents appear to fall into the authoritarian parent category (Dokmen, 1998), which may result in a low level of involvement of children in the family holiday decision making.

The research findings in the final interviews with consumers coupled with the findings in the earlier stages of research, show that females are particularly influential in the domestic holiday decision making process. In both focus groups studies, the panellists stated that females were more involved than males in the decision making process. In all of these stages of research, females' role in information collection, especially from newspaper advertisements, was emphasised. The use of informational advertisements with cognitive cues by domestic travel agencies seem to indicate that travel agencies have failed to address females in their marketing communications messages. As mentioned in 2.3.4, females are more comprehensive information processors than males, and females look for both *cognitive (objective)* and *hedonic (affective)*, ie-emotional cues, in the message (Meyers-Levy, 1985, 1988, and 1991). Thus, the use of informational advertisements does not seem to be appropriate, due to

the nature of females' information processing. These advertisements appear to be targeting males rather than females.

Therefore, based on the fact that newspaper advertisements are an important source of information in the holiday decision making process, and females play a much more significant role in collecting information from newspapers, it can be recommended that when travel agencies advertise in newspapers they should direct their messages in a more focused way at females. However, this does not imply completely excluding messages aimed at males.

The research findings relating to the involvement and influence of family members in the Turkish domestic tourism activity appear to resemble to Fodness' (1992) research in which he concluded that wives were more likely than husbands to conduct the pre-holiday information search. On the other hand, while Myers and Moncrief (1978) observed that the decision to go on a holiday, ie the route decision, was overwhelmingly made by husbands, the decisions about the rest of the activities tended to be a shared task between husbands and wives. Additionally, the findings regarding the involvement and influence of family members also resemble very much to the findings of Zalatan (1998b) in a more recent research on pleasure travel among the domestic tourism activities of Canadians. Zalatan (1998b) concluded that females/wives were more involved in the *initial trip tasks* including information search, selecting destination and determination of holiday date, and *pre-departure tasks* including preparing luggage and transportation arrangements. On the other hand, in Zalatan's (1998b) research females/wives had a very marginal involvement in tasks related to the *financing* aspects of the holiday. However, differences of findings appear in the areas of the determination of holiday region/site/resort. While in Zalatan's (1998b) research females were highly involved in the determination of the holiday site/region/resort, the findings of this research indicated that there was more of a common involvement regarding this aspect of holidays.

In the light of the above, it can be suggested that travel agencies should not neglect the needs of women, and should prepare their marketing mix elements, including marketing communications, in such a way that appeals to them. Effective marketing of holidays requires that marketing managers understand not only what their

customers' motives are, and what they do on holidays, but also how people make their holiday decisions (Fodness, 1992). Fodness (1992) advised that as wives were more likely than husbands to conduct the pre-holiday information search, promotional materials must be disbursed and located where wives can find them. Travel agencies operating in the Turkish domestic holiday market should not only make sure that their marketing communications messages reach females/wives through the appropriate medium, but also they should ensure that the format and content of their marketing communications messages appeals to to them.

### **6.3.0 The Role and Potential of Marketing Communications in the Domestic Tourism Market**

This section is aimed at analysing and interpreting the findings of this research relating to the present role and the potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market.

#### **6.3.1 Marketing Communications in the Domestic Tourism Market**

Due to the significance attached to newspaper advertisements, both by the travel agencies (See Figure 6.1 for advertising spending of selected travel agencies) and by the consumers (see 6.1.2.2 Organisation Structure and Marketing Activities), the analysis of the role and potential of advertising in general will be focused on newspaper advertisements.

Travel agency newspaper advertisements in the three largest national daily newspapers of Hürriyet, Sabah and Milliyet were analysed between 1<sup>st</sup> April 1998 – 15<sup>th</sup> October 1998 and 1<sup>st</sup> April 1999-and 15<sup>th</sup> October 1999 in terms of the content and the format of newspaper advertisements. These three national newspapers were selected on the basis that travel agencies overwhelmingly in them.

The analysis of the newspaper advertisements of almost all travel agencies during the period showed that the body of newspaper advertisements were very much similar to the one provided in Figure 6.2. The name of the individual travel agency appeared at the top of the body of the advertisement on the left hand side or in the middle.

Additionally, details regarding to the payment methods, discounts, etc were provided at the top of the body of advertisement, on the right or both on the left and right, depending where the name of the travel agency appeared. At the bottom of the body of the advertisement, the contact telephone numbers of the travel agency outlets were provided. In the body of the advertisements, occasionally a very small air photo of the accommodation establishment appeared in the box allocated for a package holiday.

<b>PIRATE'S KEMER</b> BEACH CLUB 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TUM YERÜ ALKOLLÜ ALKOLSÜZ İÇECEKLER HER ŞEY DAHİL 168.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN TP	<b>LETOONIA BELEK</b> GOLF RESORT 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TAM PANSİYON 105.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN TP	<b>NATURLAND KEMER</b> 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 98.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP	<b>ART CORINTHIA KEMER</b> HOTELS INTERNATIONAL 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TAM PANSİYON 87.500 7 GECE 8 GÜN TP	<b>ARACADIA BELEK</b> International Hotel & Resort 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 118.300 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP
<b>Club Kadikale BODRUM</b> 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TUM YERÜ ALKOLLÜ ALKOLSÜZ İÇECEKLER HER ŞEY DAHİL 113.750 7 GECE 8 GÜN HD	<b>Bel CONTI BELEK</b> RESORT HOTEL 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 105.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP	<b>SIMENA KEMER</b> 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TAM PANSİYON 120.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN TP	<b>AĞAOĞLU BODRUM</b> My Resort SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TUM YERÜ ALKOLLÜ ALKOLSÜZ İÇECEKLER HER ŞEY DAHİL 136.500 7 GECE 8 GÜN HD	<b>BELLIS BELEK</b> 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 71.750 7 GECE 8 GÜN HD
<b>Ersan Tatil Köyü BODRUM</b> 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 88.550 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP	<b>HOTEL SAPHIR ALANYA</b> 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 49.900 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP	<b>Club Alca KEMER</b> 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER TUM YERÜ ALKOLLÜ ALKOLSÜZ İÇECEKLER HER ŞEY DAHİL 112.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN HD	<b>CHAMPION KEMER</b> HOLIDAY VILLAGE 1. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 77.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP	<b>SUN CITY KEMER</b> HOLIDAY VILLAGE 5. Sınıfta Köy SABAH-AKŞAM ZENGİN AÇIK BÜFELER YARIM PANSİYON 77.000 7 GECE 8 GÜN YP

Figure 6.2 An Example of the Type of Newspaper Advertisements Used by Travel Agencies

The information provided for each package holiday included the following:

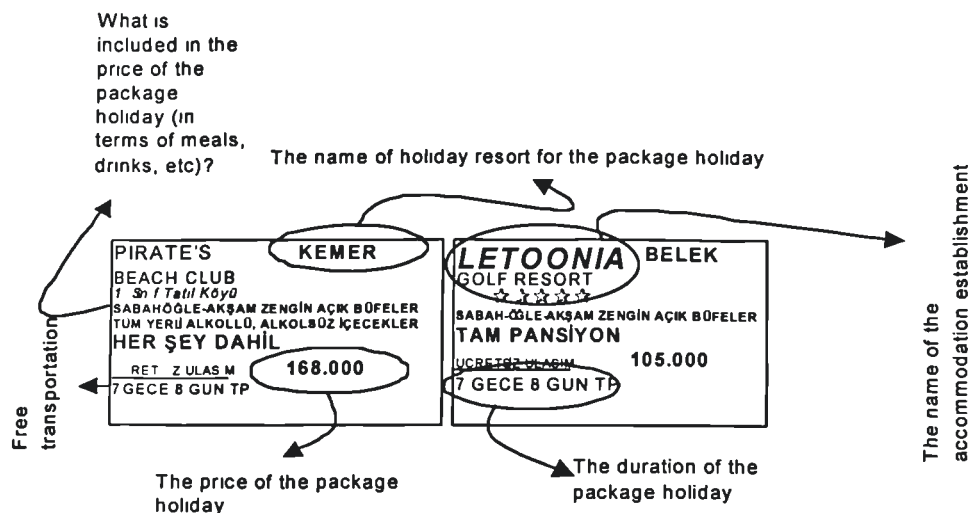


Figure 6.3 The Content of a Sample Package Holiday Newspaper Advertisement

Kaynak and Ghauri (1986) when comparing advertising practices in Turkey, Canada and Sweden, found that the level of writing and technical content of advertising copy, were, in general, related to the level of literacy and education in that country. For example, in Turkey the extent of the writing content and technical information is

limited and the advertising copy used by the Turkish advertising agencies is persuasive in nature rather than informative.

The generalisation made by Kaynak and Ghauri (1986) does not seem to be applicable for the Turkish domestic tourism industry, where the industry overwhelmingly relies on factual advertising. Additionally, Berksoy (1994) found that the domestic holiday market, and especially the package holiday market, catered for consumers with relatively higher levels of education (high school and university) and income. There has been also a noticeable increase in terms of the level of education in Turkey after Kaynak and Ghauri's research in 1986. The number of high school and university graduates between 1986 and 1994 increased by 45% and 60% respectively<sup>5</sup>.

The characteristics of the types of advertisements used by domestic travel agencies presented in Figure 6.2 resemble the *informational advertisements* described by Puto and Wells (1984). Puto and Wells (1984) described an informational advertisement as one which provides consumers with factual and relevant data in a clear logical manner such that consumers have a greater confidence in their ability to assess the merits of buying. The marketing communications messages of Turkish travel agencies represent a Consumer Processing Model approach to information processing of the target audience. As Levy (1980) argued, cognitive elements of the marketing communications are less valid for products or services which are purchased to fulfil emotional needs, for example, opera, music, sports, perfumes and leisure (Shimp, 1997). The advertisements of the Turkish domestic travel agencies do not have any *emotional* or *affective* connotations which were emphasised by Burstin (1990).

Additionally, the informational advertisements used by domestic travel agencies do not bear persuasive cues or cues related to the specific needs of a particular market segment. Based on the orientations to management described in 2.1, the advertisements used by domestic travel agencies represent a product orientation, rather than a marketing orientation to management. Due to the lack of detailed and systematic information about the target market, as mentioned in 6.1.3.1, the content of newspaper advertisements included only the pull factors, with no reference to the push

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<sup>5</sup> Mezun Olan Öğrenci Sayıları, Capital Türkiye Yıllığı, Capital Guide, April 1999, pp.69.

factors. For this reason, the current marketing communications messages (newspaper advertisements) seem to treat marketing communications as working in an active way on more or less passive people (Lannon 1986), and assume that consumers are merely drawing information from the marketing communications messages, without them being actively involved in assigning meanings to the product or service promoted (McCracken, 1987).

Additionally, Turkish domestic travel agencies, by using cognitive, objective cues and pull attributes, and using only the Consumer Processing Model (CPM) approach in their marketing communications, disregard the Hedonic Experiential Model (HEM) approach. Therefore, marketing communications messages of domestic travel agencies appear to be less able to persuade the potential customers.

### **6.3.2 The Findings Related to the Present Role and Potential of Marketing Communications**

The last two stages of primary research, ie focus group studies and final interviews, were designed to explore how panellists and interviewees processed marketing communications messages.

In the focus group studies it appeared that there were no major differences between females and males *in terms of the particular holidays chosen* from a given set of newspaper advertisements. However, when reasons for choosing particular holidays were analysed, there were marked differences between females and males.

In both the focus group studies and the final interviews 12 pages of advertisements were given to the panellists and interviewees were asked to choose three holidays they would like to go on most as a family. Each page of advertisement was numbered and the interviewees were asked to write down the number of the page from which they chose their three holidays (See Appendix 5-D). Although the basic holiday package information was the same, advertisements from three travel agencies featured in the materials given to the respondents. Two of the travel agencies were the largest firms in the domestic tourism market, namely Duru, the market leader and ETS, the market follower. Additionally, a fictional company, named SunTur, was created, as the third

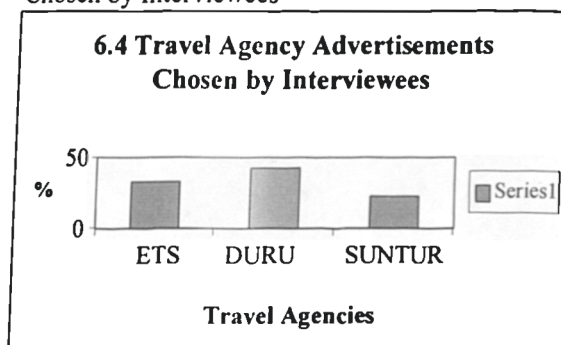
firm. For each travel agency there were four different pages of advertisements with the following features:

- i) Plain informative advertisements (classified type) currently used by travel agencies
- ii) Plain advertisements with some cognitive and affective verbal cues attached.
- iii) Plain advertisements with some cognitive and affective photo cues attached.
- iv) Plain advertisements with some cognitive and affective verbal and photo cues attached.

The overall frequencies for choosing each travel agency, and the types of advertisements in the interviews are provided in tables 6.7 and 6.8 and Graph 6.4 and 6.5:

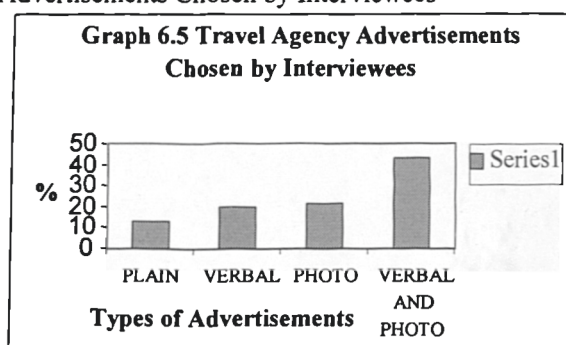
	Frequency	%
ETS	101	32,6
DURU	131	42,3
SUNTUR	71	22,9

Table 6.7 The Travel Agency Advertisements Chosen by Interviewees



	Frequency	%
PLAIN	40	12,9
VERBAL	61	19,7
PHOTO	67	21,6
VERBAL AND PHOTO	135	43,5

Table 6.8 The Types of Travel Agency Advertisements Chosen by Interviewees



Tables 6.7 and 6.8 and Graphs 6.4 and 6.5 show that the role of a brand is important to a limited extent, as a non-existing, pseudo travel agency, created by the researcher with the name SunTur, attracted about 23% of all choices. It also seems that interviewees prefer advertisements with cognitive and affective cues (advertisements enhanced with verbal and photo cues) - 87.1 %, against plain advertisements, currently used by travel agencies, which attracted only 12.9% of choices. Therefore, it appears that advertisements with cognitive and affective cues have superiority over



advertisements with limited cognitive cues in terms of conversion, ie conversion of an advertisement into a direct inquiry (Laskey *et al.*, 1994). The results of this research seem to differ from the research findings of Laskey *et al.*'s (1994). Laskey *et al.* (1994) investigated the effectiveness of informational advertisements of travel agencies in the USA against transformational advertisements (image –based advertisements) and concluded that informational advertising elicits a more favourable response pattern than image-based (transformational) advertisements.

However, this research was different from Laskey *et al.*'s (1994) in the sense that it was not concerned with the influence of added pictures, but concerned whether advertisements with cognitive and affective cues can elicit a more favourable response than plain informational advertisements. This research shows that plain informational advertisements when enhanced with both cognitive and affective cues elicit a more favourable response.

Although the findings of the focus group studies were similar to the responses represented in Tables 6.7 and 6.8 above, a much more extreme concentration on advertisements with verbal and photo cues was observed in the focus group studies. Invariably, none of the panellists in either female or the female focus group opted for a plain advertisement as any of their first choices.

Apart from comparing the frequencies of choices made by females and males, the significance can be tested through formulating null and alternate hypotheses using the Chi-Test ( $\chi^2$ ) method.

The null hypothesis is;  $H_0$ = there is no relationship between gender and the choice of advertisements, ie the columns and rows in the pivot table are independent. The alternate hypothesis is  $H_1$ = there is a relationship between gender and the choice of advertisements, ie the columns and rows in the pivot table are dependent. Based on the responses of interviewees (See Appendix 5-D), the following pivot table has been prepared:

Observations

	Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Choice 5	Choice 6	Choice 7	Choice 8	Choice 9	Choice 10	Choice 11	Choice 12	Total
Females	11	25	20	18	10	17	15	6	4	29	5	5	165
Males	8	15	14	17	4	15	3	13	2	34	10	2	137
	19	40	34	35	14	32	18	19	6	63	15	7	302

Then by using the following Chi-Test ( $\chi^2$ ) formula the significance is tested as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{O_n^2}{n_i nA} - \sum O$$

$$= \frac{n}{nA} \left( \sum \frac{O^2}{n_i} \right) + \frac{n}{nB} \left( \sum \frac{O^2}{n_i} \right) - N$$

where;

$O$  = observed values

$nA$  = 165

$nB$  = 137

$N$  = 302

$$\frac{302}{165} \left( \frac{11^2}{19} + \frac{25^2}{40} + \frac{20^2}{34} + \frac{18^2}{34} + \frac{10^2}{14} + \frac{17^2}{32} + \frac{15^2}{18} + \frac{6^2}{19} + \frac{4^2}{6} + \frac{29^2}{63} + \frac{5^2}{15} + \frac{5^2}{7} \right) +$$

$$\frac{302}{137} \left( \frac{8^2}{19} + \frac{15^2}{40} + \frac{14^2}{34} + \frac{17^2}{35} + \frac{4^2}{14} + \frac{15^2}{32} + \frac{3^2}{18} + \frac{13^2}{19} + \frac{2^2}{6} + \frac{34^2}{63} + \frac{10^2}{15} + \frac{2^2}{7} \right) - 302 = 18.919$$

The degree of freedom is  $df = (n-1)(m-1) = (12-1)(2-1) = 11$  at 5% confidence level

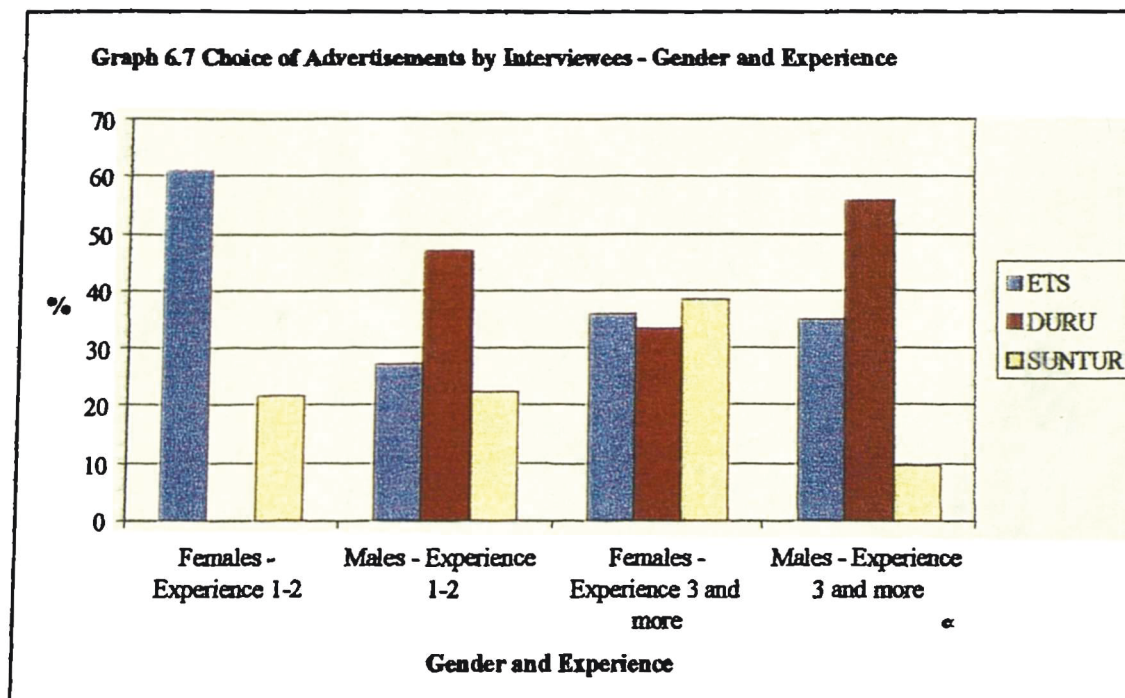
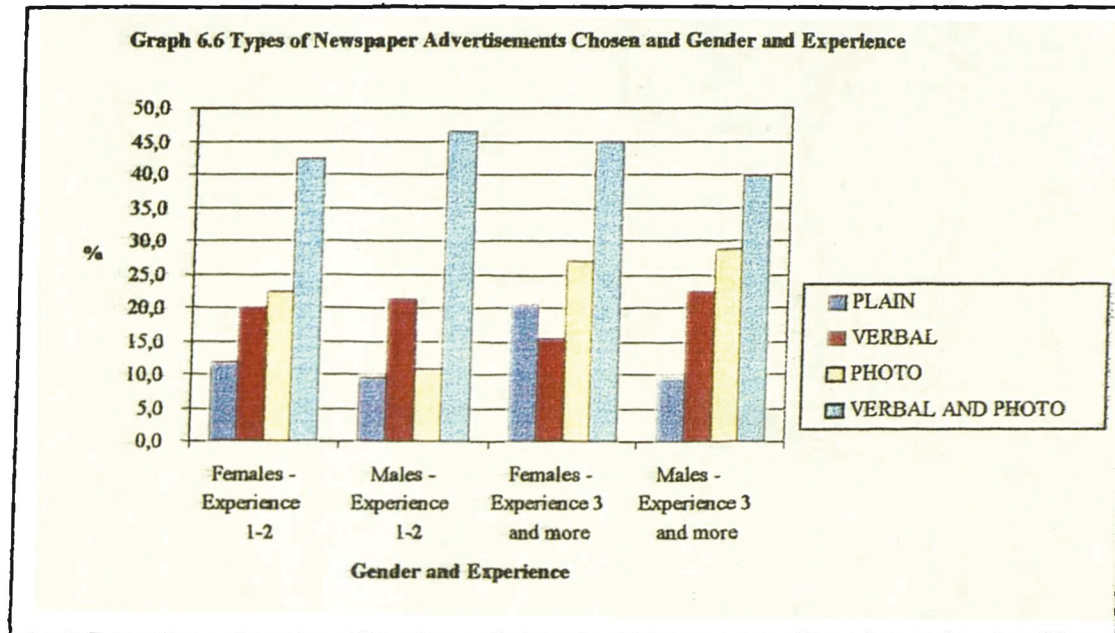
$\chi_{11,05}^2 = 19.675$ . As the calculated  $\chi^2$  value of 18.919 is lower than the critical value of 19.675, the null hypothesis will be not be rejected. This means that at 5% significance level, there is no relationship between *gender* and the *choice* of advertisements.

The relationship between experience and choice, and the influence of gender can also be investigated based on the observed frequencies in the interviews. For instance, tables 6.9 and 6.10 and Graph 6.6 and 6.7 show that with the increase in females' package holiday experience, the choice of an unknown brand (SunTur) increases from 22.4% to 38.5%. Males seem to opt less for an unknown brand, perhaps due to their heuristic decision making, based on credibility which is explained below. With the

increase in package holiday experience, males' tendency to choose known brands increase at the expense of unknown brands.

	Females-Experience 1-2		Males-Experience 1-2		Females-Experience 3 and more		Males-Experience 3 and more	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
PLAIN	10	11,8	8	9,5	16	21,5	6	9,5
VERBAL	17	20	18	21,4	12	15,4	14	22,2
PHOTO	19	22,4	9	10,7	2	2,9	18	28,6
VERBAL AND PHOTO	36	42,4	39	45,4	35	44,9	25	39,7

Table 6.9 The Types of Holiday Chosen and the Role of Gender and Experience on the Types of Advertisements



	Females		Males		Females		Males	
	Experience 1-2		Experience 1-2		Experience 3 and more		Experience 3 and more	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
ETS	23	27.1	28	33.3	28	35.9	22	34.9
DURU	40.0	47.1	30	35.7	26	33.3	35	55.6
SUNTUR	19.0	22.4	16	19.0	30	38.5	6	9.5

Table 6.10 Types of Holiday Chosen by Interviewees and the Role of Gender and Experience on Brand Choice

The following individual tables for each page of advertisement show that the use of advertisements with verbal and photo (cognitive and affective) cues is especially important for unknown brands or firms newly entering the domestic tourism market. For instance, while SunTur's percentage of frequency to be chosen appears to be 1.9% only for its plain advertisements, this percentage increases to 12.9% when both cognitive and affective cues are included. SunTur's advertisements with verbal and photo (cognitive and affective cues) seem to score more than even the total of ETS and Duru plain advertisements. This would seem to suggest that even an unknown brand using an advertisement with cognitive and affective cues can attract more people than two major brands can with their current plain advertisements. It also appears that for known brands, the inclusion of cognitive and affective cues increases their chances of being chosen by the interviewees.

#### Page 1 - ETS Plain

ETS Plain	Experience 1-2		Experience 1-2		Experience 3 and more		Experience 3 and more		Total		Total
	Females n 85	Males n 84	Females n 85	Males n 84	Females n 78	Males n 63	Females n 78	Males n 63	Females n 78	Males n 63	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		n
Females	7		8,2		4		5,1		11		6,7 163
Males	4		4,8		4		6,3		8		5,4 147
							Total		19		6,1 310

Table 6.11 The Role of Gender and Experience – ETS Plain

#### Page 2 - SunTur-Verbal and Photo

SunTur-Verbal and Photo	Experience 1-2		Experience 1-2		Experience 3 and more		Experience 3 and more		Total		Total
	Females n 85	Males n 84	Females n 85	Males n 84	Females n 78	Males n 63	Females n 78	Males n 63	Females n 78	Males n 63	
	Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		Frequency		n
Females	9		10,6		16		20,5		25		15,3 163
Males	11		13,1		4		6,3		15		10,2 147
							Total		40		12,9 310

Table 6.12 The Role of Gender and Experience – SunTur-Verbal and Photo

## Page 3 – Duru Photo

Duru - Photo	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	12	14.1	8	10.3	20	12.3 163
Males	3	3.6	11	17.5	14	9.5 147
				Total	34	11.0 310

Table 6.13 The Role of Gender and Experience – Duru Photo

## Page 4 – ETS Verbal

ETS - Verbal	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	6	7.1	12	15.4	18	11.0 163
Males	9	10.7	8	12.7	17	11.6 147
				Total	35	11.3 310

Table 6.14 The Role of Gender and Experience – ETS Verbal

## Page 5 – Duru Plain

Duru - Plain	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	3	3.5	8	10.3	11	6.7 163
Males	2	2.4	2	3.2	4	2.7 147
				Total	15	4.8 310

Table 6.15 The Role of Gender and Experience – Duru Plain

## Page 6 – ETS Verbal and Photo

ETS - Verbal and Photo	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	8	9.4	9	11.5	17	10.4 163
Males	11	13.1	4	6.3	15	10.2 147
				Total	32	10.3 310

Table 6.16 The Role of Gender and Experience – ETS Verbal and Photo

## Page 7 – SunTur Photo

SunTur - Photo	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	5	5.9	10	12.8	15	9.2 163
Males	2	2.4	1	1.6	3	2.0 147
				Total	18	5.8 310

Table 6.17 The Role of Gender and Experience – SunTur Photo

## Page 8 – Duru Verbal

Duru - Verbal	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63		
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	% n
Females	6	7.1	0	0.0	6	3.7 163
Males	8	9.5	5	7.9	13	8.8 147
				Total	19	6.1 310

Table 6.18 The Role of Gender and Experience – Duru Verbal

## Page 9 – SunTur Plain

SunTur - Plain	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total	
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63			
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	%	n
Females	0	0.0	4	5.1	4	2.5	163
Males	2	2.4	0	0.0	2	1.4	147
					Total	6	1.9 310

Table 6.19 The Role of Gender and Experience – SunTur Plain

## Page 10 – Duru Verbal and Photo

Duru - Verbal and Photo	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total	
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63			
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	%	n
Females	19	22.4	10	12.8	29	17.8	163
Males	17	20.2	17	27.0	34	23.1	147
					Total	63	20.3 310

Table 6.20 The Role of Gender and Experience – Duru Verbal and Photo

## Page 11 – ETS Photo

ETS - Photo	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total	
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63			
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	%	n
Females	2	2.4	3	3.8	5	3.1	163
Males	4	4.8	6	9.5	10	6.8	147
					Total	15	4.8 310

Table 6.21 The Role of Gender and Experience – ETS Photo

## Page 12 – SunTur Verbal

SunTur - Verbal	Experience 1-2	Experience 1-2	Experience 3 and more	Experience 3 and more	Total	Total	
	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 85, Males n 84	Females n 78, Males n 63	Females n 78, Males n 63			
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	%	n
Females	5	5.9	0	0.0	5	3.1	163
Males	1	1.2	1	1.6	2	1.4	147
					Total	7	2.3 310

Table 6.22 The Role of Gender and Experience – SunTur Verbal

From the above individual tables, it appears that there are *similarities* between females and males, in terms of their choice of advertisements. On the other hand, from the viewpoint of the reason as to why a particular advertisement is chosen by interviewees, differences appear to exist (See Appendix 5-D).

Based on the responses of interviewees, the following categories of reasons emerged:

- Reason 1 No answer given
- Reason 2 Content (informativeness and persuasiveness) Cognitive and affective cues.
- Reason 3 Liking for /attractiveness of the sender/message (Heuristic)
- Reason 4 Credibility of the sender of the message ie the reputation of the travel agency (Heuristic)

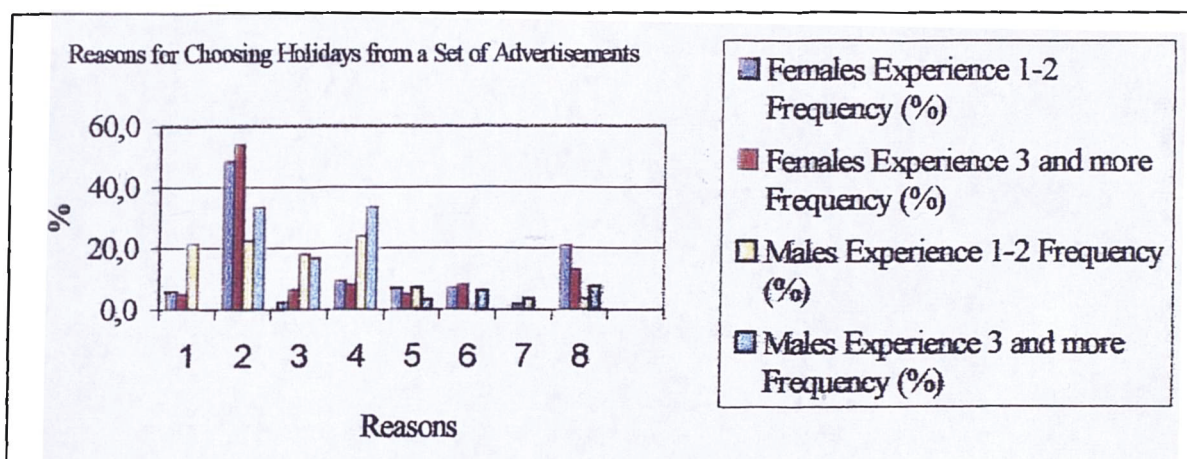


- Reason 5 Preference for the region
- Reason 6 Preference for the accommodation establishment/holiday complex
- Reason 7 Price
- Reason 8 Other (eg free travel, full board, all inclusive, payment and instalment, and friends' recommendations).

Based on the above categories of reasons, the following frequency table of the responses has been prepared:

Reasons		Females		Males	
		Experience 1-2 Frequency (%)	Experience 3 and more Frequency (%)	Experience 1-2 Frequency (%)	Experience 3 and more Frequency (%)
No answer given	1	5,7	4,8	21,4	0,0
Content (informativeness and persuasiveness)	2	48,3	54,0	22,6	33,3
Attractiveness of /Liking for the Message (Heuristics)	3	2,3	6,3	17,9	16,7
Credibility (Heuristics)	4	8,2	7,8	23,8	33,3
Preference for the region	5	8,9	4,8	7,1	3
Preference for the accommodation establishment	6	6,9	7,9	0	6,1
Price	7	0	1,6	3,6	0
Other	8	20,7	12,7	3,6	7,6

Table 6.23 The Reasons for Choosing Holidays From a Given Set of Advertisements



Graph 6.8 Reasons for Choosing Holidays From a Given Set of Advertisements

The relationship between gender and the reason for choosing advertisements can be tested by using the Chi-Test ( $X^2$ ) method, based on the following pivot table, derived from the responses of the interviewees (See Appendix 5-D):

Observed

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3	Reason 4	Reason 5	Reason 6	Reason 7	Reason 8	Total
Females	0	76	6	13	9	11	1	26	142
Males	0	41	26	42	8	4	3	8	132
	0	117	32	55	17	15	4	34	274

$$\frac{274}{142} \left( \frac{0^2}{0} + \frac{76^2}{117} + \frac{6^2}{32} + \frac{13^2}{55} + \frac{9^2}{17} + \frac{11^2}{15} + \frac{1^2}{16} + \frac{26^2}{34} \right) +$$

$$\frac{274}{133} \left( \frac{0^2}{0} + \frac{41^2}{117} + \frac{26^2}{32} + \frac{42^2}{55} + \frac{8^2}{17} + \frac{4^2}{15} + \frac{3^2}{4} + \frac{8^2}{34} \right) - 274 = 47.945$$

$df = (n-1)(m-1) = (8-1)(2-1) = 7$  at 5% confidence level  $\chi^2_7 = 14.067$ . As the calculated  $X^2$  value of 47.945 is greater than 14.067, the null hypothesis can be rejected and the alternate hypothesis can be accepted. This means that at 5% confidence level, there is a relationship between gender and the reason for choosing advertisements. However, as earlier discussed, there is no significant relationship between gender and the type of advertisement chosen. This means that, although there is no significant difference between females and males in terms of the choice of advertisements, females and males differ in terms of why they choose those holidays.

The findings of the final interviews suggest that females seem to make their holiday decisions on the basis of the content of marketing communications messages. With the increase in package holiday experience, the reason for choosing a particular holiday on the basis of the content of marketing communications messages increases from 48.3% to 54%. The choice of a particular advertisement on the basis of two heuristic devices i.e. attractiveness of/liking for the advertisement (reason 3) and credibility of the sender (reason 4) appears to be low for females. This finding is very much in line with the views of international researchers like Craik (1979), Eagly and Chaiken (1984), Kahneman *et al.* (1982), Langer (1978), Schneider and Shiffrin (1977), Slater and Rouner (1996), who attributed the use of heuristic devices to the low level of elaboration in decision making. One of the other findings of this research, as mentioned above, is that females have a high level of involvement, and hence, a high level of elaboration. On the other hand, males have a low level of involvement, and hence, a low level of elaboration in the holiday decision making.

However, it is noteworthy that, although the content of an advertisement is important for females in choosing a holiday, overall they appear to be less careful readers. Reasons 5 to 8 represent factors such as preference for the region, preference for the accommodation establishment, and price. Since these factors are the same in each page of advertisements, making a choice on the basis of these factors shows that the



advertisements have not been carefully read. With the increase in package holiday experience, females seem to be more careful readers as the percentage of reasons from 5 to 8 declines from 34.5% to 27.2%. This finding appears to be in contradiction with Craik (1979), Eagly and Chaiken (1984), Kahneman *et al.* (1982), Langer (1978), Scheneider and Shiffrin (1977), Slater and Rounder (1996) as they concluded that the use of heuristic devices in the decision making refers to low level of elaboration, and this may create a halo effect about the content of the message. Therefore, the researchers argued that the credibility of the sender and attractiveness of the message may act as noise in the decision making, by taking the emphasis away from the content of the message. However, according to the findings of this research, although males used heuristic devices, and had low level of involvement and elaboration, they were not influenced by the *noise* element in the communication process as much as one would have expected.

On the other hand, for males while the content of a message still appears to be relatively important, heuristic decision making on the basis of attractiveness of/liking for the message and credibility seem to have much more significance with total heuristic being 41.7% for interviewees with lower levels of experience and 50% for interviewees with relatively higher levels of package holiday experience. Although males make their decisions based more on heuristic devices, they appear to be more careful readers, as the total percentage of reasons from 5 to 8 amount to only 14.3% (for interviewees with lower levels of package holiday experience) and 16.7% (for interviewees with relatively higher levels of package holiday experience). Therefore, although there are similarities in terms of the choice of advertisements between females (wives) and males (husbands), the basis on which females and males make their decisions are different.

The findings of this research in terms of how females and males process information and on what basis they make their decisions bear a resemblance to the findings of Meyers-Levy (1989), Meyers-Levey and Maheswaran (1991), Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991) and (Statt, 1997), who stated that males are often selective in their information processing and do not engage in comprehensive processing of all information as a basis for judgement. Statt (1997) further argued that males tend to develop *heuristic* devices, ie procedures or methods or strategies for solving a

problem or making a decision, based on a single cue or cues that convergently imply a single inference to substitute detailed information processing. As a consequence, males are expected to prefer processing strategies based on highly available and apparent cues.

On the other hand, Meyers-Levey and Maheswaran (1991) found that females exhibited a greater sensitivity to the particulars of relevant information when forming judgements. Meyers-Levy (1989, 1994) concluded that males, in fulfilment of their agentic roles (eg, achievement orientation), tended to process information selectively while females, in fulfilment of their communal roles (eg affiliation orientation) tended to process information comprehensively. In other words, in the fulfilment of their affiliation-oriented role, women tend to process information more comprehensively. The researcher is of the opinion that females'/wives' higher levels of involvement in the holiday decision making process, and especially in information processing, can be attributed to their affiliation orientation, as they may be expected to be more concerned with the well-being of family members during a holiday.

Silverman (1970) explains that the differences between genders come from having different attentional styles. Having analysed their research findings in the light of previous research, Darley and Smith (1995) concluded that "males would respond more favourably to objective marketing communication claims while females would respond more favourably to subjective marketing communication claims". Females' tendency to elaborate increases with the level of incongruity of a message. The use of objective claims increases with the perceived risk related to a product or service decision.

The findings of this research, in terms of the choices made by male interviewees appear to be contradicting Silverman's (1970), and Darley and Smith's (1995), as males in this research also opted for advertisements with both objective and subjective cues. Males did not seem to concentrate on plain advertisements with objective claims alone. However, there seems to be an overlap with the findings of this research in terms of the information processing of females, and Silverman (1970) and Darley Smith (1995) and other researchers', as mentioned above.

This chapter has analysed and interpreted the findings of this research both from the viewpoint of the providers of service and consumers. The findings of research has clear implications for the practitioners in the market in designing their marketing communications messages. It appears that gender is a significant factor for the practitioners in designing and making their marketing communications messages available to the target audience. The overall conclusions of this research and the recommendations for the practitioners will be discussed in the following chapter.

## **Chapter 7: Conclusions and Recommendations**

### **7.0 Overview**

#### **7.1.0 The Adoption of the Marketing Concept**

#### **7.2.0 The Family Decision-Making Process**

#### **7.3.0 The Categories of Information Sources Used**

##### **7.3.1 Newspaper Advertisements**

##### **7.3.2 Brochures**

##### **7.3.3 Travel Agency Staff as a Source of Information**

##### **7.3.4 Friends and Relatives as a Source of Information**

##### **7.3.5 The Internet**

#### **7.4.0 The Transferability of International Theories**

#### **7.5.0 Recommendations for Future Research**

### **7.6.0 The Use of *Findings, Conclusions* and *Recommendations***

This research has investigated the role and potential of marketing communications in the Turkish domestic tourism market, based on the key questions as outlined in Chapter 1. It has reached a number of conclusions. For practical reasons these conclusions are presented in the following three categories:

- i) The extent of the adoption of the marketing concept.
- ii) The family decision making process.
- iii) The categories of information sources used.

#### **7.1.0 The Adoption of the Marketing Concept**

This refers to the extent to which travel agencies use the marketing concept as a guiding principle in their marketing communications initiatives.

The findings of the research, analysed and interpreted in Chapter 6, indicate that the marketing communications initiatives of domestic travel agencies are not based on a thorough understanding of the needs and characteristics of their identified target markets.

The interviews with key informants showed that managers in travel agencies were not fully aware of the needs and characteristics of their target market. Though the staff at travel agencies were more knowledgeable about the needs and the characteristics of the target market, there was a lack of an information system to disseminate information to decision-makers at management level. This shows that travel agencies operating in the domestic tourism market do not have effectively functioning marketing departments. Thus, it is recommended that travel agencies should establish marketing departments, so as to allow the systematic collection, processing, dissemination, and the retrieval of information.

In the absence of effectively functioning marketing departments, it was not surprising to observe that the travel agencies conducted their businesses around the product and/or selling orientations of management rather than the marketing orientation. The travel agencies emphasised only the service attributes, ie the pull factors (product orientation), ignored the push factors (factors motivating tourists) in their marketing communications messages, and engaged in aggressive selling activities. As explained in 2.1.0, the adoption of the marketing concept/orientation starts with the anticipation and identification of customers' requirements.

The way travel agencies manage their business and market their products/services is attributable to the family and individual ownership structure prevalent in the Turkish domestic tourism market (explained in chapters 4, 5 and 6). It is believed that the product and selling approaches to management adopted by travel agencies are very much determined by the power culture prevalent among these firms, caused by their ownership structure. The conclusion is that in order to gain competitive advantage in the market, the domestic travel agencies need to re-evaluate their ownership structure and the organisational culture within their organisations.

Additionally, the fact that the Turkish domestic market is an *infant* market, has also been influential in the way travel agencies managed their businesses and market their products/services. As explained in chapter 4, although the development of the market has been phenomenal, it needs to be emphasised that use of commercial accommodation establishments was only made by 17% of the total market in 1993, and the size of the market was \$ 1.2 billion. It would seem, therefore, that although

the market has grown during the last seven years, the ability of domestic travel agencies to effectively service the market can be questioned.

### **7.2.0 The Family Decision-Making Process**

Based on the decision-making process explained in 6.1.3.2, the domestic holiday decisions are made by husbands and wives jointly, though wives have a dominant role in the information search and the processing of information. Thus, it is recommended that the dominant role of wives in the information search and processing of information should be taken into account by marketing managers in travel agencies. Marketing communications messages should be mainly directed at wives, both from the viewpoint of their content and the medium used. It was observed that marketing communications messages with both emotional and cognitive cues appear to have superiority over cognitive information based marketing communications messages, which are commonly used by travel agencies.

It was observed that Turkish domestic tourists in general fell into the categories of Organised Mass Tourists (OMTs), Independent Mass Tourists (IMTs) and Sun Lovers (SNLs). Researchers such as Culligan (1992), Pearce (1988) Brotherton and Himmetoglu (1997) and Krippendorf (1987a) argued that, in parallel with the decline in marginal utility of tourists, there is a move from General Interest Tourism (GIT) to Special Interest Tourism (SIT).

Therefore, the future changes taking place, especially in tourist typologies, need to be continuously monitored, as these changes can influence the way in which consumers make their holiday decisions, and the way in which they respond to marketing communications messages.

### **7.3.0 The Categories of Information Sources Used**

In this section conclusions relating to the information sources are presented.

### 7.3.1 Newspaper Advertisements

The findings suggested that domestic tourists make their holiday decisions based on the information provided in newspaper advertisements. Although there are similarities between wives and husbands in terms of their response to various advertisements, the underlining reasons are different. While husbands make their decisions through the use of heuristic devices, such as credibility of the sender and the attractiveness of the sender and or message, wives make their decisions based on the content of the cognitive and affective cues provided in the marketing communications messages. However, family types, family member roles, and how families make their holiday decisions may change over time. This needs to be monitored by the practitioners in the market.

### 7.3.2 Brochures

In the Turkish domestic tourism market, brochures are used by customers after they have made their decisions to reduce the cognitive dissonance they may feel after a purchase is made. This means not only a waste of resources on the part of travel agencies, but also a loss of an opportunity to use this influential marketing communications tool in persuading customers. The practical reasons offered by the managers at travel agencies, for not making the brochures available to the consumers before they make their decisions were explained in 6.1.2.2. However, strategies could be developed to bring the role of brochures to the pre-purchase stage and enable the potential consumers to examine brochures before they make their final decisions. In this way, the brochures can be used both to *inform* and *persuade* potential customers before they make their purchase decisions, as well as reducing the customer's cognitive dissonance after a purchase is made. For instance, travel agencies can develop customer databases and send their brochures to customers beforehand. Then, customers can be informed of any price changes through the mailing of updated price lists.

### **7.3.3 Travel Agency Staff as a Source of Information**

While the management at travel agencies value the services of sales staff in persuading potential customers and enhancing the company image, the findings of this research suggest that this high opinion is not shared by consumers, who appear not to trust the information provided by the sales staff. In reality, therefore, the function of sales staff is limited to implementing clerical work related to booking. Such a situation is to under-use an extremely important marketing communications channel, and might suggest the need for travel agencies to explore how they can better integrate their marketing communications activities. As Hanefors and Mossberg (1998) argued, sales staff can be used in the service encounter as a strategic resource in order to fulfil the expectations of tourists, while both for reducing the consequences of intangibility and differentiating the service offer from other service providers. According to Shimp (1997) “Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) considers all sources of brand and company contacts which a customer or prospect has with the product or the service as potential delivery channels for future messages. Further, IMC makes use of all forms of communication which are relevant to the customer and prospects, and to which they might be receptive”.

The lack of an awareness of the performance of travel agency staff in marketing holidays is attributable to the factors explained in 7.1.0. If travel agencies had established effectively functioning marketing departments, they could have identified the problems related to the performance of sales staff in marketing holidays, and the necessary precautions could have been taken.

Additionally, it is believed that the ownership structure of travel agencies has been influential in fostering a selling orientation. As it was explained in 6.1.2.2, the larger travel agencies owned only few outlets, and marketed their holidays through smaller local travel agencies on a small commission basis. This encouraged a selling orientation on the part of smaller local travel agencies and caused a pressure on sales staff at travel agencies to make a sale without taking the long-term well-being of the customers into account.



It is recommended that travel agencies should review their operation systems and establish systems to monitor their operations and receive feedback from the customers.

#### **7.3.4 Friends and Relatives as a Source of Information**

The research findings suggest that in the Turkish domestic tourism market the role of friends and relatives is insignificant in the consumer decision –making process. This needs to be taken into account in developing Integrated Marketing Communications strategies by travel agencies.

#### **7.3.5 The Internet**

According to the latest research (DUNYA, 2000), in 1999 only 17% of the Internet users in Turkey were female. Considering the fact that there were 580 000 Internet users in Turkey, the numbers of females which can be reached through the Internet are less than 100 000. This means that, at present, the domestic travel agencies and accommodation establishments are able to reach only a limited number of females through the medium of the Internet. Therefore, it is recommended that marketing communicators continue their focus on traditional communications tools and media, but maintain a close observation of emerging Internet trends.

#### **7.4.0 The Transferability of International Theories**

The analysis and the interpretation of findings related to the role of family members suggest that, the theories and models developed by international researchers on family holiday decision making and gender roles (introduced in chapters 2, 4 and 5 of this research) are similar . This means that, to a greater extent, the theories developed by international researchers such as Fodness (1992), Consenza and Davis (1981), Nichols and Snepenger (1988), Fodness (1992), Fodness (1992), Harrison (1992) and Zalatan (1998) are relevant in the context of the Turkish domestic market and they can be transferred.

Additionally, the findings of this research related to gender roles and information processing bear strong similarities too, to the theories developed by international researchers such as Bakan (1966), Broverman *et al.* (1968), Rhine and Severance (1970), Poole (1977), Holbrook (1978), DePaulo (1979), Atkin (1979), Burstein, *et al.* (1980), Edell and Staelin (1983), Holbrook (1986) Deaux and Kite (1987), Meyers-Levy, (1989), Meyers-Levy (1989), Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran (1991), Meyers-Levy and Sternhal (1991) Darley and Smith (1993), Gutkin (1994), Statt (1997) and Zatos *et al.* (1992), as discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

On the other hand, findings related to the role of friends and relatives appear to contradict the views of researchers such as Webster (1991), Assael (1995), Witt and Moutinho (1995) Peter and Olson (1996), who emphasised the role of friends and relatives in influencing the choice of the consumer. However, it should be stated that the views of these researchers were not based on specific research regarding domestic tourism. Therefore, the role of friends and relatives presents an opportunity for doing further research into the domestic markets of other countries.

In general terms, the international theories and models appear to be transferable to the Turkish context, and the overall findings of this research are in line with the culture convergence hypothesis put forward by Levitt (1983), Ohmae, (1989), Okechuku and Yee (1991) and Pizam (1993 and 1999), as discussed in 3.0.6.

Therefore, based on the premise that the international theories and models of marketing communications and tourism are relevant and transferable to Turkey, it is suggested that the findings of this research can be relevant for other countries. Further research, therefore would allow firmer conclusions to be made regarding the culture convergence hypothesis within the context of marketing communications and tourism, and business practitioners in other countries may benefit from the findings of this research.

### **7.5.0 Recommendations for Future Research**

So far the researcher has emphasised the need for a continuous monitoring of the developments regarding the findings of this research. Moreover, it has been

suggested that the transferability of the findings of this research in other countries could be investigated through further research.

As this research has been largely a qualitative piece of research, with exploration at its core, it is considered to be helpful in describing how phenomena operate, and in developing and testing preliminary causal hypotheses and theories (Campbell, 1979; Johnson, 1994; LeCompte and Preissle, 1993). Thus, the findings presented in Chapter 6, could be formulated into hypotheses, and investigated, using quantitative research methods with larger sample sizes, to reach conclusions that could be generalised.

Although during the observation stage (at travel agencies) the behaviour of consumers was explored, the focus of this research has been mainly on understanding their attitudes. This was necessitated by the fact that it was not feasible to persuade travel agencies to test out the various marketing communications messages on the consumer's behaviour. In future, with the participation of a travel agency, the *behaviour of consumers*, rather than their attitudes might be investigated.

#### **7.6.0 The Use of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations**

Finally, it is suggested that the following groups of people would benefit from the findings, conclusions and recommendations provided in this research:

- i) Travel agency owners and their management can benefit both in terms of the effective management of their businesses in general, and the design and implementation of improved marketing communications initiatives. Additionally, commercial accommodation owners and their management can benefit from the above improvements in marketing their hotels and holiday villages, both to consumers directly, and to the large travel agencies indirectly.
- ii) Policy makers both at national and regional level can benefit from the improved marketing communications.

With the development of domestic tourism through the improved marketing communications, the general economic growth of the country can be increased especially because of the high *multiplier* value of Turkish tourism (Fletcher, 1995).

Moreover, improved marketing communications may convince more citizens to look for holiday opportunities within the country, which would have a positive effect on the balance of payments. The regional imbalances might be reduced through the development of domestic tourism activity within the country. The reduction of regional economic imbalances in the country might also be expected to contribute towards the solution of social and political problems which exist in Turkey.

The development of domestic tourism through improved marketing communications can be beneficial for policy makers at regional level. As explained in Chapter 4, although the regional tourist boards have traditionally existed in Turkey for some time, they have not been involved in marketing their regions to domestic consumers. However, with the increasing level of decentralisation in Turkey (Kozlu, 1995), local authorities are becoming more interested in opportunities to increase their revenues. Some of the local authorities (municipalities) in the south of Turkey have started to form partnerships to improve the marketing of their regions to international and domestic tourists (TURSAB, 1998b).

- iii) Improvements in the marketing and marketing communications activities of travel agencies can help consumers in making better and more effective holiday decisions, which in turn may be expected to support the development of domestic tourism in Turkey.
- iv) Finally, as stated earlier on, when the issues of relevancy and transferability of the findings were discussed, business practitioners and policy makers in other countries can benefit from the findings of this research.

## **APPENDIX 1**

### **Exploratory Tourist Interviews**

## APPENDIX 1-A) Exploratory Tourist Interviews - Contact Fax Message (English)

### Fax Message

<b>To</b>	
<b>From</b>	
<b>Date</b>	
<b>Subject</b>	

Erdoğan Koç  
Doğuş Institute of Higher  
Education  
Acıbadem – Uzunçayır Sok. No:7  
81010 Kadıköy Istanbul

Tel : 0216 3268449  
Fax : 0216 3266749  
E-mail : ekoc@dogus.edu.tr

Dear Sir / Madam

I will be staying at your hotel/holiday village between 11.07.1998-14.07.1998 /  
15.07.1998-18.07.1998 / 19.07.1998-22.07.1998.

I am currently undertaking a programme of research into Marketing Communications  
and Domestic Tourism. I would be most grateful if you could give me the necessary  
permission to interview 7-8 of your visitors during their stay.

I am hoping that the general findings of this research will be useful for management  
of both the travel agencies and the commercial accommodation establishments.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries.

## APPENDIX 1-B) Exploratory Tourist Interviews - Contact Fax Message (Turkish)

### Faks Mesajı

Gönderilen

Gönderen

Tarih

Konu

Erdoğan Koç  
Doğuş İleri Eğitim Kurumu  
Acıbadem – Uzunçayır Sok. No:7  
81010 Kadıköy İstanbul

Tel : 0216 3268449  
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Sayın

11.07.1998-14.07.1998 / 15.07.1998-18.07.1998 / 19.07.1998-22.07.1998 tarihlerinde otelinizde/tatil köyünüzde konaklıyor olacağım.

Ben halen Pazarlama İletişimi ve İç Turizm alanlarında bir araştırma yapmaktayım. Otelinizde/tatil köyünüzde kalışım esnasında otelinizde kalan diğer misafirlerinizden 7-8 kadarıyla bir mülakat yapabilmem için gerekli iznin verilmesini saygılarımla arz ederim.

Araştırmanın genel sonuçlarının seyahat acentaları ve sizinki gibi konaklama işletmeleri için faydalı olacağına inanıyorum.

Yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Benimle herhangi bir konuda irtibata geçmek isterseniz, bundan mutluluk duyacağımı belirtmek isterim.

Saygılarımla,

## **APPENDIX 1-C) Exploratory Tourist Interviews – Interview Questions**

What sort of information sources do you use before going on a holiday?

- Do you find the information provided by these sources sufficient and effective?  
How could the current information provided by the information sources be improved?
- How long before going on a holiday do you start searching for information and book your holidays?
- What are the specific activities carried out before a holiday decision is made?
- How important is the reputation of the travel agency for you? Do you always go with the same travel agency when you are satisfied?
- If you were satisfied would you go to the same destination and the same accommodation establishment? (ie would you buy the same holiday product without any changes?)
- What are your main motivations for going on a holiday? Why?
- What attributes do you value most in a package holiday? Why? Describe your ideal holiday?
- What do you do when you are dissatisfied with the holiday during and after the holiday?



## **APPENDIX 2**

### **Key Informant Interviews**

## **APPENDIX 2- A) Key Informant Interviews – Contact Letter (English)**

Dear Sir / Madam

I am currently undertaking a programme of research into Marketing Communications and Domestic Tourism. I would like to collect as much information as possible about domestic tourism and travel agencies for my research.

I have found out that your firm will be participating in the East Mediterranean Travel and Tourism Exhibition (Emitt '99) between 18-21 February 1999.

Would it be possible for me to have an interview with you, and possibly with some of your staff members (sales staff), during the exhibition at a time convenient to you?

I am hoping that the general findings of this research will be useful for travel agencies operating in the domestic market. Additionally, I would like to I assure you that all information provided will be kept strictly confidential.

Thank you in advance for your kind co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Erdoğan Koç

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## **APPENDIX 2- B) Key Informant Interviews – Contact Letter (Turkish)**

Sayın

Ben halen Pazarlama İletişimi ve İç Turizm alanlarında bir doktora araştırması yapmaktayım.

Araştırmamı tamamlayabilmem için, sizin gibi İç turizm hakkında bilgili insanlarla, görüşme yapma ihtiyacı duymaktayım. Eğer Emitt 99 Voyager turizm fuarı süresince (18-21 Şubat 1999) sizinle ve satış personelinizden bir-iki kişiyle, sizin uygun gördüğünüz gün ve saatte, bir mülakat yapma imkanı verirsiniz çok sevineceğim.

Araştırmanın genel sonuçlarının seyahat acentaları için faydalı olacağına inanıyorum. İşletmeniz ile ilgili özel ve gizli sorular sormamakla beraber, verilen bilgilerin gizli tutulacağı konusunda sizi temin ederim.

Yardımlarınız ve ilginiz için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

Erdoğan Koç

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Acıbadem – Uzunçayır Sok. No:7  
81010 Kadıköy, İstanbul

Tel : 0216 3268449  
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## **APPENDIX 2- C) Key Informant Interviews – Interview Questions**

- 1      Who are the main groups of customers and their characteristics?  
(Segmentational variables)
- 2      How is information about customers obtained? How is the information  
processed and by whom?
- 3      Is there a formal marketing department? If yes; what sort of activities are  
carried out in the marketing department?
- 4      What is the size of the total market? What is the market share of each  
individual travel agency? For instance, your competitor A...
- 5      What are the stages in preparing a package holiday before a customer  
purchases it?
- 6      Who is the travel agency you are working for owned by? What is the most  
common form of ownership among travel agencies and commercial  
accommodation establishments?
- 7      What are the main motivations of tourists for going on a holiday? Why do  
they go on a holiday? What do they expect from a holiday? What sort of  
things would like to do on a holiday? What are their preferences? What do  
they value most?
- 8      In general when do customers make a booking?
  - a) on average how many days, weeks and months before going on a holiday.
  - b) Season: Winter, summer, etc. What is the peak season, month or day of  
the week?

- 9 In family holidays who contacts the holiday agency? Husband b) Wife c) Children
- 10 How do customers get in touch with the travel agency?  
Do they come directly or phone first, etc?
- 11 On average what percentage of customers coming into the travel agency make a purchase? How long does it take to close a sale on average? Do customers need much convincing from the sales personnel?
- 12 Do customers come alone? Or with friends, family members, etc.
- 13 How do you travel agencies reach their customers and promote your products? What is your annual promotional expenditure? (As a percentage of your sales? Breakdown of promotional expenditures?) Advertising (brochures, newspapers, other), public relations, personal selling, sales promotion.
- 14 When is the peak season/period in the domestic tourism market?  
Who is responsible for preparing the brochures marketing communication materials and messages? Is the travel agency satisfied with marketing communication messages? Are they effective?

## **APPENDIX 3**

### **Observations at Travel Agencies**

### **APPENDIX 3- A) Observations – Contact Letter (English)**

Dear Sir / Madam

I would like to thank you one more for taking the time to participate in the interview session on 18/19/20/21 February 1999.

As we agreed at the end of the interview, if possible, I would like to hold a full day observation on ....., at your ..... branch.

Could you please inform the branch manager that I shall be holding an interview session, if you have not informed her/him yet?

I very much appreciate your assistance and look forward to meeting you again.

Yours sincerely,

Erdoğan Koç

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### **APPENDIX 3- B) Observations – Contact Letter (Turkish)**

Sayın

18/19/20/21 Şubat 1999 günü mülakata katıldığınız ve verdiğiniz bilgilerden ötürü size çok teşekkür ederim.

Sonraki telefon konuşmamızda anlaştığımız üzere ..... günü ..... şubenizde gözlemlerde bulunmak istiyorum. Eğer henüz bilgilendirmediyseniz, şube müdürünü lütfen bilgilendirir misiniz?

Desteğiniz ve yardımlarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Tekrar görüşmek ümidiyle.

Saygılarımla,

Erdoğan Koç

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### **APPENDIX 3- C) A Sample Observation Note**

**Date** : Saturday, 6<sup>th</sup> March 1999

**Time of Observation** : 10:30

**Duration of Observation** : 25 minutes

**People Involved** : A family -a wife, a husband (approximately aged between 30-35) and one child (a girl of approximately 5)

The wife requested to speak to the sales assistant that she had spoken to earlier on the phone. The sales assistant introduced herself and they all sat down.

The wife, referring to a package holiday advertisement from Hürriyet (Newspaper), asked whether they could still make a booking for the package holiday starting the following day. The sales assistant said that it was sold out, but they could go on the following Sunday. (Apparently, during the earlier telephone conversation, the customer had not checked whether there were vacancies or not, and the sales assistant had not informed the customer about the availability of the holiday).

The family expressed their dissatisfaction. Then, the wife asked about a second option. (She appeared to have determined a second option from the newspaper advertisements). The sales assistant said that it was available and they could go the following day. The wife asked the sales assistant whether the hotel was good. The sales assistant said that it was a newly built hotel and it was very clean. She also said that the food was excellent at the hotel.

The sales assistant added that this new place was a much better place than the family had originally planned to go to. The husband did not like the comment made by the sales assistant and asked why the other package holiday was sold out, and not this one, if this was a better place to go. The sales assistant said that it was just by chance.

Then, the wife inquired about the availability of facilities for children. The sales assistant described the facilities at the hotel for about five minutes. The wife asked whether the sales assistant herself had stayed in the same hotel. The answer was no.

Then the family asked for a brochure. They examined the brochure for ten minutes and asked a few questions about the price, transportation and payment methods. While the wife asked questions related to the facilities at the hotel, the husband asked questions related to price and payment methods.

The family agreed to buy their second option. The necessary paperwork was done. The sales assistant gave the details, regarding the transportation, and the rest of the payments as the family decided to pay in instalments. The wife asked whether they could keep the brochure. The sales assistant said that they had run out of copies and it was their last copy. She promised that the new brochures would arrive the following week and they could come and collect their copy then. The wife said it was too late, as they would be on their holidays. The family left.

## **APPENDIX 4**

### **Focus Group Studies**

## APPENDIX 4- A) Focus Group Studies – Focus Group Transcripts (Female Focus Group )

### Focus Group I - Female Panellists (6)

**Duration: 35 minutes.**

The moderator started the focus group study process by a brief introduction regarding the scope of the study. The panellists were explained how to fill in the focus group study form<sup>1</sup>. The summary of the forms filled in by the respondents looked as follows:

	Package Holiday Experience	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice
Panellist 1	0	8	3	10
Panellist 2	2	10	11	6
Panellist 3	6	10	2	6
Panellist 4	0	6	6	1
Panellist 5	3	2	9	5
Panellist 6	5	10	7	4

- Moderator** Can you please tell me why you have made these choices?  
What was the reason behind choosing these particular holidays?
- Panellist 4** I have heard about the place before.
- Moderator** Do you mean the region or the accommodation establishment?
- Panellist 4** The region.
- Panellist 5** The reason for my choices is that I seem to find most of the information I need before going on a holiday. For instance, transportation details about payments, facilities for children. Plus the reputation of the travel agency. I have made my choices from travel agencies I know.
- Panellist 5** It is the same for me. The reputation of the travel agency has been an important factor in making my decisions.
- I find the information provided in all of these adverts rather limited. There should be more information.
- Moderator** You mean when you compare the travel agency advertisements with the ones you see on newspapers?

---

<sup>1</sup> The purpose of asking the panellists to fill in a form regarding their holiday choices and reasons, was to reduce the influence of the other group members, while still enabling interaction.

- Panellist 5** Yes. But I have always found the newspaper advertisements of travel agencies rather limited and boring. I need more explanatory information. These advertisements can be used as a starting point. But I would definitely need to look at brochures when I go the travel agency.
- Moderator** How about you?
- Panellist 2** For me the reputation of the travel agency is important. And I have made my choices from places I have been before.
- But I think the most important reason for choosing these holidays was the provision of the detailed information about the facilities for children and food, etc.
- Moderator** How about you?
- Panellist 2** You are asking me why I have made these choices. Am I correct?
- Moderator** Yes
- Panellist 2** Some of the advertisements are different, they have more information, pictures and explanations about the facilities for children. I like these ones with details and all that. Helps me to make a decision whether the place is suitable for my child or not. Also, in the holidays I have chosen, the presentation of information looked nice.
- Apart from these the travel agency is a reputable one. The price did not seem to be important for me, as most of them are more or less similar.
- Panellist 1** In making my decision the reputation of the travel agency has been an important criterion for me. Although I have not been on a package tour myself, I have heard good things about this travel agency, I have heard about the reputation of travel agency.
- Moderator** Is it important for you to have detailed information about the holiday?
- Panellist 6** No. (This is a contradiction with her earlier comments).
- Panellist 4** Yes. I am especially interested in information regarding the transportation.
- Panellist 5** Yes. In fact what I do before deciding where to go with my family, is to look at newspaper advertisements first, and then visit the travel agency to get more information, as the

information provided in newspapers these days about holidays, are not sufficient. However, when I look at the advertisements, I more or less make my firm decision though.

- Moderator** Do you shop around? Do you visit more than one travel agency?
- Panellists 2 and 5** Yes
- Panellist 6** No. I usually determine one or two travel agencies from the advertisements and I phone them instead of visiting them.
- Moderator** Do you usually purchase the holiday you have decided from the advertisements?
- Panellists 2, 5 and 6** Yes. If its available and all other things are OK.
- Moderator** Are sales staff at travel agencies are important in making your decision?
- Panellist 2** No, not really. I decide more or less myself based on the information I gather from newspapers and other sources.
- Panellist 3** What I do first is to choose the region. For instance, the Mediterranean region, rather than the Aegean. It is also important for me to get information about transportation and places I can visit around the region. I usually collect information about the region. I would call the hotel for instance in Side myself.
- Then, I search for more information in newspaper advertisements. Then, I phone the travel agency and visit them based on the information I get from the newspaper advertisements.
- You can usually make a judgement about the efficiency of the travel agency based the telephone call you make. You feel whether they can meet your demands or not. If I am not satisfied with them based on the phone call, I would stop going any further with that agency.
- Panellist 6** In making my decision I prefer brochures as they provide information in detail.
- Moderator** Do you always get them before making your decision?
- Panellist 6** Yes.
- Panellist 1** Aren't there problems in obtaining them?

- Panellists 1 and 6** Sure. We decide on the region first, then look in the newspapers, and then brochures are used. (A contradiction – Panellist 1)
- Moderator** Are newspaper advertisements important sources of information in making the holiday decision?
- Panellist s2, 3 and 6** Yes
- Panellist 5** Yes. We first find the information from the newspaper advertisements. They are the primary source of information for us.
- Moderator** Which member of your family is more involved and has more influence in the holiday decision, information collection and so on?
- Panellist 5** In my family it is me.
- Panellist 4** My son has more influence. We usually go where he wants.
- Panellist 6** I am more involved in the process and have the most influence in the family.
- Panellist 2** It is always me, as I know about the needs of our children more than my husband.
- Panellist 3** The decision about the region to visit would be a common decision between myself and my husband. But in the rest of the decision, I am more involved and I have more influence in the decision making.
- Panellist 1** I am more influential and more involved in all of the stages.
- Panellist 2** It seems that there is a female dominance in holiday decision making process.
- All Panellists** (They laugh).
- Moderator** I will check what men say to this.
- Moderator** Is the availability of information about the facilities for children important for you?
- Panellists 2, 5 and 6** Yes. Very important.

<b>Panellist 3</b>	<p>Yes. Before my child was born, we used to look for other bits of information. But. now, as relaxation and ability to rest is very much dependent on the comfort of your children. So the provision of information about this is good.</p> <p>In fact a package holiday with attributes for children are definitely influential in making a decision. If a particular package holiday mentions these it is definitely a winner.</p>
<b>Panellist 6</b>	Our first concern is to find activities for children. I mean the availability of facilities and suitability for children.
<b>Panellist 2</b>	First, we take care of the children, then ourselves. If there are things to keep them busy at a hotel, then we would make decisions in favour of that place.
<b>All Panellists</b>	(They nod).
<b>Moderator</b>	Why do you have summer holidays? In other words, what is your purpose?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	Mainly, rest and relaxation. With little kids you cannot have entertainment. You can't stay up late and so on.
<b>Panellist 4</b>	I am more interested in seeing new places.
<b>Moderator</b>	Could this have to do with you having independent holidays rather than package holidays?
<b>Panellist 4</b>	Yes. Definitely. I would be bored on a package holiday.
<b>Moderator</b>	Do you find the holiday decision as a risky decision? If you compare with the purchase of, for instance a TV set and a piece of furniture, which one do you think is
<b>Panellist 5</b>	It varies. But you feel a bit unsafe before making the decision of course. Places may change, travel agencies may change, or the service you get may vary.
<b>Panellist 6</b>	I do not start with negative feelings.
<b>Panellist 2</b>	Yes I agree. This would spoil the whole thing.
<b>Moderator</b>	Do you collect more information to make sure everything is OK? For instance from friends and relatives?
<b>Panellist 3</b>	Not really. Your choice and your friends choices would be different.
<b>Panellist 2,5 and 6</b>	(They nod).



<b>Panellist 2</b>	Yes everybody is different. For this reason I would not ask other people's opinions.
<b>Moderator</b>	Is there a relation between the amount of information collection and pleasure you get out of? I mean is it really important to collect information?
<b>All Panellists</b>	(They nod).
<b>Panellist 3</b>	Yes. The more you suffer before (collecting info and so on), the more you get out of that holiday.
<b>Moderator</b>	Can you please turn to page seven? There are four pictures. What do they tell you? For instance the big one? What is the image presented there?
<b>Panellist 3</b>	Slimming!
<b>All Panellists</b>	(They all laugh).
<b>Panellist 1 and 6</b>	It reminds me cleanliness. It also looks very quiet and clean
<b>Panellist 5</b>	Yes. Clean and fresh.
<b>Panellist 2</b>	A quiet beach. Good for relaxing. A quite holiday. Sunny and warm.
<b>Panellist 6</b>	It is quiet.
<b>Moderator</b>	Does it remind you rest and relaxation?
<b>All Panellists</b>	Yes
<b>Moderator</b>	Can you associate yourself with this picture? Would you say that you would like to be in a place like that?
<b>Panellist 5</b>	Yes. Definitely. It is inviting.
<b>Panellist 6</b>	Yes
<b>Panellist 2</b>	Yes
<b>Panellist 3</b>	Yes, if I am planning a sun and sea holiday.
<b>Moderator</b>	How about other pictures? What do they tell you?
<b>Panellist 3</b>	A family.
<b>Panellist 2,5 and 6</b>	(They nod).

<b>Moderator</b>	How about the other one?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	Lots of children. It looks like a chaos to me.
<b>Panellist 6</b>	It is crowded.
<b>Panellist 1</b>	I wouldn't go there.
<b>Panellist 2</b>	But it is an ideal place for children. The pool, the entertainment and so on.
<b>All Panellists</b>	(They nod).
<b>All Panellists</b>	Do these pictures tell you anything altogether?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	A family holiday.
<b>Panellist 6</b>	Yes. Perfect for everyone in the family.
<b>Panellist 4 and 5</b>	(They nod)
<b>Panellist 3</b>	In my opinion these pictures are independent because the people in them are different.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	These pictures do not influence my decision. I would just look at them. That's all. But, I prefer the verbal information.
<b>Moderator</b>	Is it important to have more information?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	Of course. I find verbal information more important than the pictures.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	The same for me. I don't mean lots information. Should be just enough. Otherwise, it would put me off.

## APPENDIX 4- B) Focus Group Studies – Focus Group Transcripts (Male Focus Group )

### Focus Group II - Male Panellists (5)

**Duration: 30 minutes.**

The moderator started the focus group study process by a brief introduction regarding the scope of the study. The panellists were explained how to fill in the focus group study form<sup>1</sup>. The summary of the forms filled in by the respondents looked as follows:

	Package Holiday Experience	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice
Panellist 1	6	8	4	10
Panellist 2	5	2	6	1
Panellist 3	0	6	2	10
Panellist 4	0	2	6	10
Panellist 5	3	10	10	12

- Moderator** Can you please tell me why you have made these choices?  
What was the reason behind choosing these particular holidays?
- Panellist 5** There were similarities between the pages of advertisements. But I chose for instance, from this one (Page 10), because I found it more attractive because of its layout and design.
- Panellist 2** The region is important for me. I mean the region of the hotels. The information about the facilities for kids has also been influential in making my decisions. It is very difficult to manage the kids during the holidays. You need various facilities and activities.
- Panellist 1** The explanations are good. The emphasis on the safety aspect is important. Also the brand reputation is very important. And the page design. Still I do not trust the advertisements that much. These pictures might have been taken somewhere else.
- Panellist 5** I have made my choices about places I have heard about. Also the price element is important.
- Panellist 4** The page design is very good. I find it inviting. It is very attractive. The pictures are very nice.
- Moderator** Is this because you are with us? Or your true feelings. I mean if you were to decide to go on a holiday, would you really have made the same choices?

---

<sup>1</sup> The purpose of asking the panellists to fill in a form regarding their holiday choices and reasons, was to reduce the influence of the other group members, while still enabling interaction.

<b>Panellist 4</b>	Yes. I would have made the same choices.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	I think the attractiveness of the advertisement draws your attention, invites you to read. Then you look inside whether it has what you look for.
<b>Moderator</b>	Who is more influential and involved in the family when making holiday decisions?
<b>Panellist 3</b>	My wife provides me with the details then we do the booking. She looks at newspapers and so on, and then, I consider the financial side of it.
<b>Panellist 4</b>	We collectively make the decision. But it is my wife who usually provides the ideas and information.
<b>Panellists 2 and 5</b>	(They nod).
<b>Panellist 1</b>	My wife is more influential. She is more aware of the needs of our children.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	I determine the region. Then kids and my wife determine the hotel. Then we discuss the facilities.
<b>Moderator</b>	Is your experience similar to Panellist 5?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	More or less. But My wife is more influential in the decision making process. She does almost all of the necessary things.
<b>Moderator</b>	Do you feel you are making a risky decision when you make a holiday decision?
<b>Panellist 5</b>	Of course, there is always a risk element. But every time you go on a holiday you learn something new. For instance, if there are too many mosquitos in a particular region, then you do not go there again.
<b>Panellist 1</b>	I look for the availability of the health services. How far is the nearest hospital, etc? For this reason I would not prefer to be away from centres. Terror is another risk. I am very concerned about the children.
<b>Moderator</b>	How about the psychological risk before and during the decision-making process? Things like: "Will this package holiday meet my expectations?" and so on.
<b>Panellist 4</b>	If we feel like that, then we would collect more information.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	If you choose a new place, the risk factor becomes more significant.

<b>Panellist 2</b>	I would be more concerned about the facilities and services at the hotel. Because health, terrorism, etc problems may occur in other places too.
<b>Panellist 3</b>	The risk is “ Will I be happy?” or ‘Will it be worthwhile?’
<b>Moderator</b>	What are your expectations from a holiday?
<b>Panellist 4</b>	Rest and relaxation.
<b>Panellists 2 and 3</b>	(They nod).
<b>Panellist 5</b>	It is different for other members of family. I am mainly concerned with rest and relaxation. My wife is also concerned with rest and relaxation and being away from house chores. But my children are concerned with enjoyment and entertainment. Then, as a family we look for everything.
<b>Panellist 3</b>	First, I consider the needs of my children.
<b>Panellist 1</b>	Yes. If they are happy we would happy.
<b>Panellist 5</b>	I agree.
<b>Moderator</b>	Can you tell me about your decision-making process? What sort of things do you do before making your decision?
<b>Panellist 5</b>	I know an agency and they know me too. So we directly go there. But my wife usually collects information beforehand. You become more practical as your holiday experience increases.
<b>Panellist 2</b>	My brother is involved in tourism. I ask his views.
<b>Panellist 1</b>	The reputation of the firm. Then, we search for information from newspapers, etc.
<b>Moderator</b>	Do you find newspaper advertisements useful? Do you use them?
<b>Panellist 5</b>	Yes
<b>All panellists</b>	(They nod).
<b>Moderator</b>	Can you please turn to page 7? What do these pictures tell you?
<b>Panellist 2</b>	A place where you can go as a family
<b>Panellist 3</b>	A family holiday. It is a family holiday picture

**Panellist 5** Lots of kids, and noise.

**Moderator** Do you find the text or the pictures more important?

**Panellist 1** You can never trust pictures. They might have been taken anywhere. They do not necessarily tell you much.

**Panellist 3** Seeing is believing. I think pictures are more important.

**Panellist 4** The existence of pictures show that it is a large and reputable travel agency, which can afford big advertisements with pictures. (The panellist 4 did not realise that all three travel agencies had same sort of advertisements).

**Moderator** How about Suntur? It has advertisements with pictures too.

**All panellists** (Panellist 4 realises that that are only three sets of pictures in all 12 pages of advertisements) (They all laugh).

## **APPENDIX 5**

### **Final Interviews with Consumers**

## APPENDIX 5- A) The Final Interviews -The Interview Form (Turkish)

### İç Turizm Araştırması

Ailece bu yaz bir haftalık bir tatil yapmaya karar verdiniz. Size verilen 12 sayfalık gazete reklam örneklerini inceleyiniz. Bir reklam sayfasında 2'den fazla olmamak üzere gitmeyi arzu ettiğiniz 3 tatil belirleyiniz. Sonra bunları aşağıda belirtilen şekilde öncelik sırasına göre yazınız ve niçin bu tatili seçtiğinizi belirtiniz. (Eğer verilen reklamlardaki tatillerden hiç birine gitmek istemiyorsanız sayfanın arkasına nedenini yazınız).

1. Öncelikle gitmek istediğim tatil .... no'lu sayfadadır. (Lütfen sayfa numarasını\* yazınız).

Çünkü:

2. Öncelikle gitmek istediğim tatil .... no'lu sayfadadır. (Lütfen sayfa numarasını\* yazınız).

Çünkü:

3. Öncelikle gitmek istediğim tatil .... no'lu sayfadadır. (Lütfen sayfa numarasını\* yazınız).

Çünkü:

**Lütfen bu kısmı da doldurunuz.** (Cevaplamak istemediğiniz soruları lütfen boş bırakınız).

1.Yaşınız 21-25 ☐ 26-30 31-35 36-40 40-45 ☐ 2. Cinsiyetiniz (E/K) E ☐ K ☐  
3.Çocuk sayısı 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 4 4. Çocukların yaşları 0-3 ☐ 4-7 ☐ 8-11 ☐ 12-15 ☐

(Çocuk sayısına bağlı olarak birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz).

5.Daha önce kaç kez bu size verilen reklamlarda tanıtılan türde organize tatillere çıktınız?

0 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-4 ☐ 5-6 ☐ 6'dan fazla ☐

6.Tatil kararınızı verirken aşağıda belirtilen yöntemlerin hangisine hangi sıklıkta başvurursunuz ve bu yöntemlere ne kadar önem verirsiniz? Sıklık (frekans) ve önemi belirtmek için 1'den 5'e kadar verilen değerleri işaretleyiniz. (1:en az sıklık veya en az önem; 5: en fazla sıklık veya en fazla önem için).

	Sıklık/Frekans	Önem
a) Gazete reklamları	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
b) Broşürler	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
c) Kendi geçmiş deneyimlerim	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
d) Arkadaş ve akraba tavsiyesi	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
e) Seyahat acentasında satış personelinin verdiği bilgiler	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
f) Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz)	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5

7. Eğitim seviyeniz İlkokul ☐ Orta Okul ☐ Lise ☐ Üniversite ☐

8.Tatil kararınızı verirken aşağıdaki aşamaların hangilerinden geçtiğinizi en soldaki kolona bir çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz. Sonra bu işaretlediğiniz aşamaları ortadaki kolonda 1' den başlayarak sıraya koyunuz. Son kolonda (en sağdaki) aile bireylerinden kimin bu aşamalarda etkili / aktif olduğunu belirleyiniz. (Birden fazla aile bireyi işaretleyebilirsiniz).

	Hangi Aşamalar	Aşamaların Sırası	(Ailede kimin etkili olduğu)		
			Erkek	Kadın	Çocuk/lar
a) Valizlerin hazırlanması	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Kalınacak tesisin ve tatilin belirlenmesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Gazetelerden bilgi toplanılması	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Akraba ve dost tavsiyesine başvurulması.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Seyahat acentasına / acentalarına telefon edilmesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Seyahat acentasına / acentalarına gidilmesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Seyahat acentasına ödeme yapılması	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) Gidilecek bölgenin belirlenmesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i) Broşürlerin incelenmesi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Aylık geliriniz (milyon TL olarak) 200'den az ☐ 201-250 ☐ 251-300 ☐ 301-350 ☐ 351-400 ☐  
401-450 ☐ 451-500 ☐ 501-550 ☐ 551-+ ☐

10. Bir yılda kaç kez tatile çıkıyorsunuz? a) Yaz tatili ☐0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐3+ b) Diğer Tatil ☐0 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐3+

\*Sayfa numaraları her reklam sayfasının sağ üst köşesinde yazılıdır.



## APPENDIX 5- B) The Final Interviews - The Interview Form (English)

### Domestic Tourism Research

Assume that you have decided to go on a domestic holiday this summer with your family for a week. You have been given 12 pages of newspaper advertisements from which to choose 3 holidays that you would like to go most. You should not choose more than 2 holidays from each advertisement page. After choosing your top 3 holidays please put them in order of significance to you as specified below and explain why. (If you are unable to choose any holidays from these advertisements, please explain briefly the reason/s at the back of this questionnaire).

1. My first choice holiday is on page ..... (Please write the number of the page\*).

Because

.....

2. My second choice holiday is on page ..... (Please write the number of the page\*).

Because

.....

3. My third choice holiday is on page ..... (Please write the number of the page\*).

Because

.....

**Please fill in this section too.**

(Please leave blank any of the questions you do not wish to answer)

1. Your age 21-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐ 40-45 ☐ 2. Your sex Male ☐ Female ☐

3. No of children 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 4. Ages of children 0-3 ☐ 4-7 ☐ 8-11 ☐ 12-15 ☐  
(Depending on the number of children you can tick more than one)

5. How many times have you been on package holidays? 0 ☐ 1-2 ☐ 3-4 ☐ 5-6 ☐ More than 6 ☐

6. When making your holiday decision how often do you use following sources of information and how much significance/value do you attach to each of them? To specify frequency of methods and significance of each statement please tick values for each statement for instance from 1 (the most significant) to 5 (the least significant). You can assign the same weighting for more than one statement.

	Frequency of Use	Significance/Value
a) Newspaper advertisements	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
b) Brochures	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
c) My prior experience	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
d) The opinions of friends and relatives	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
e) Information given by the sales staff	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5
f) Other (Please Specify)	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5

7. Level of education Primary Secondary High School ☐ University ☐

8. Please indicate which of the following stages you go through in your holiday decision making process by putting a (X) in the left hand column. Then in the next column put these stages in a sequential order by assigning numbers starting from 1. (1 is the first stage and so on). In the final three columns on the right indicate which member/s of the family are more influential/more actively involved. (You may indicate more than one family member when that is the case).

	Stages	Sequence of the Stages	Who is influential in the family?		
			Husband	Wife	Child/ren
a) Preparing luggages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Determination of the holiday and the accommodation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Collecting information from newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Seeking information from friends and relatives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Contacting the travel agency / agencies by telephone	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Visit to the travel agency / agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Purchase of the holiday and making the payment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) Determination of the holiday region	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i) Collecting information from brochures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Monthly income (TL in millions) Less than 200 ☐ 201-250 ☐ 251-300 ☐ 301-350 ☐ 351-400 ☐ 401-450 ☐  
451-500 ☐ 501-550 ☐ 551-+ ☐

10. How many times do you go on a holiday in a year?

a) Summer holiday 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 3+ ☐ b) Other holiday 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 3+ ☐

\*Page numbers are printed on the top right corner of each advertisement page.

## **APPENDIX 5- C) Final Interviews and Focus Groups – The Transcripts of Advertisements (Translated from Turkish)**

### Advertisements with Cognitive and Affective Cues

#### **A Marvellous Holiday – With the Whole Family**

Float on the cool water and enjoy the moment.

Feel free and happy, just like children.

Your children. Don't worry about them. They are so happy.

Why shouldn't they be?

There are a variety of games, competitions, lots of entertainment and more, especially designed for them. Plus they will be under the supervision of expert teachers and pedagogues.

**We have thought everything for your comfort.**

Minimum 30m<sup>2</sup> spacious rooms (2 parents and 2 children fit in comfortably) with air conditioning.

Distance to the beach is maximum 150 metres in all resorts. Well maintained and clean swimming pools. A rich variety of fresh and delicious food both from Turkey and abroad.

You will not want to wake up from this dream.

Leave everything aside. Forget the rest.

# APPENDIX 5- D) Final Interviews - Interview Spreadsheet – I (Females)

1 : F . 2 : M . 3 : C . 4 : F M . 5 : F C . 6 : M C . 7 : F M C

## Females

Participants	Choice 1	Reason	Choice 2	Reason	Choice 3	Reason	Gender	Age	Children No	Children Age	Experience	Freq. A)	Sig. A)	Freq. B)	Sig. B)	Freq. C)	Sig. C)	Freq. D)	Sig. D)	Freq. E)	Sig. E)	Freq. F)	Sig. F)	Education	Activity 1	Influence/Role	Activity 2	Influence/Role	Activity 3	Influence/Role	Activity 4	Influence/Role	Activity 5	Influence/Role	Activity 6	Influence/Role	Activity 7	Influence/Role	Activity 8	Influence/Role	Activity 9	Influence/Role	Income	Holiday Summer	Holiday Other			
1	10	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	1	3	0	0	4	8	1	6	1	4	2	4	0	0	3	2	4	4	7	2	1	4	5	4	9	2	1		
2	10	2	10	2	4	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	4	4	3	1	3	1	3	0	0	3	9	1	3	9	1	1	4	1	4	1	3	1	8	4	8	4	7	0	4	2	1			
3	1	4	4	2	11	3	1	3	1	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	0	0	4	8	5	4	7	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4	2	5	4	2	1	9	2	2		
4	2	3	2	7	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	5	3	3	3	1	1	2	3	3	3	0	0	4	8	1	6	4	1	1	0	0	2	1	3	4	7	2	5	4	4	4	4	2	1			
5	8	2	6	2	1	0	0	4	1	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	4	2	2	
6	2	2	4	2	6	2	1	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	1	1	2	1	0	0	3	6	1	3	4	1	1	0	0	4	2	5	4	5	2	2	4	0	0	8	2	1			
7	10	2	12	2	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	0	0	4	8	1	3	4	1	4	0	0	4	2	3	4	7	2	2	1	6	4	8	2	3			
8	4	2	4	2	18	2	1	3	2	1	3	3	3	4	2	3	4	6	0	1	1	2	0	3	8	1	3	4	2	1	0	0	4	1	5	4	5	2	1	4	7	4	6	2	1			
9	1	2	5	2	9	2	1	1	1	1	4	5	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	4	4	0	0	4	8	1	6	1	1	1	0	0	3	2	4	7	4	2	4	5	1	0	3	2	2			
10	10	4	2	2	6	2	1	4	1	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	4	4	0	0	4	7	1	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	2	4	8	4	3			
11	3	8	4	8	3	8	1	3	2	2	4	1	0	0	0	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	0	4	3	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	2	1	1	2	3	3			
12	3	6	6	3	7	8	1	4	1	4	1	4	4	4	0	0	0	2	4	2	4	0	0	4	3	1	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	2	3			
13	1	4	4	2	1	2	1	5	1	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	3	1	0	4	3	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	1	7	1	2	5	1	5	3	2	1		
14	3	2	11	2	3	2	1	4	2	2	3	1	1	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	1	0	0	4	9	1	4	1	1	2	0	0	2	2	0	3	2	0	0	3	4	4	4	8	2	3		
15	5	2	2	2	6	6	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	5	5	0	4	7	6	2	1	1	1	4	1	5	1	0	0	6	1	3	1	1	2	1	2	1			
16	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	4	1	3	3	3	1	1	2	3	3	4	4	0	0	0	0	3	7	6	2	1	1	4	0	0	0	4	2	3	2	3	2	1	4	2	4	5	2	1		
17	3	2	3	7	9	8	1	2	1	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	4	7	4	3	4	3	4	0	0	3	6	4	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	
18	6	5	4	8	5	8	1	4	2	4	4	5	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	5	5	0	4	7	1	5	5	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	1	4	2	4	2	3	7	0	5	4	2	2		
19	1	2	2	3			1	2	1	3	3	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	5	2	1
20	3	4	10	4			1	2	1	3	3	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	2	3	3	0	4	7	4	3	4	3	4	0	0	0	2	2	4	2	3	2	6	2	1	4	0	0	4	2	1	
21	3	4	8	2	10	8	1	4	2	3	4	1	1	3	2	4	4	2	2	1	1	0	0	3	3	2	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	4	0	0	4	2	1
22	10	2	10	2	4	2	1	3	1	3	3	1	0	0	3	3	0	0	2	2	1	1	0	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	4	0	0	2	1	
23	10	6	10	8	2	8	1	4	3	4	1	2	2	3	5	3	3	3	1	1	0	0	0	3	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	4	1	7	4	7	9	2	1
24	10	6	2	6	3	4	1	3	2	2	4	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	0	0	4	7	1	0	0	9	1	0	0	2	1	3	7	6	4	1	7	4	7	9	2	1			
25	3	8	4	2	10	2	1	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	3	0	0	1	1	3	9	1	8	2	2	1	3	1	4	2	5	2	7	2	1	1	1	6	1	2	1			
26	2	2	2	6	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	4	2	3	3	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	8	1	3	4	1	1	0	0	4	1	6	1	8	1	8	1	2	4	7	4	5	2	1	
27	10	2	10	2	6	2	1	3	1	3	3	2	1	2	1	1	3	3	3	3	4	0	0	4	8	1	3	7	4	4	1	4	5	4	3	4	4	2	0	1	4	0	0	8	2	1		
28	2	2	2	4	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	5	3	2	3	3	5	4	4	3	3	0	4	5	4	2	4	0	0	3	1	0	0	3	1	0	4	2	0	1	4	0	0	9	2	1		
29	2	2	5	8	7	2	1	3	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	4	0	0	4	7	1	5	4	2	1	0	0	3	1	4	1	6	1	8	1	2	4	7	4	5	2	1	
30	1	2	1	2	11	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	3	3	4	2	3	2	3	3	3	1	0	4	8	4	8	4	1	1	4	2	4	3	4	4	7	4	5	4	8	4	0	0	2	2		
31	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	2	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	8	2	2		
32	12	2	3	2	3	2	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	4	0	0	4	5	1	4	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	8	2	
33	2	2	10	3			1	2	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	3	7	1	5	4	1	1	0	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	2	2		
34	10	4	2	2	6	2	1	4	1	2	2	3	3	4	3	2	3	5	4	4	5	0	4	6	7	8	4	2	4	4	1	0	1	6	1	7	4	1	4	3	7							
35	1	4	1	2	7	2	1	3	1	1	5	5	1	1	3	4	3	3	4	2	3	0	0	4	8	4	5	4	1	3	1	0	0	1	3	1	7	2	6	1	1	4	0	0	9	2	2	
36	3	6	10	4	12	6	1	4	1	2	2	3	3	3	4	4	5	3	3	2	2	0	0	3	7	4	5	1	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	4	2	8	2	1	7	2	4	8	2	2		
37	10	3	11	3			1	4	1	3	3	5	3	3	4	4	5	3	3	3	3	0	0	4	8	1	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	5	1	4	1	0	4	8	2		
38	2	2	3	4			1	4	1	2	2	3	3	3	1	1	3	3	3	3	2	0	0	4	5	1	4	2	1	4	2	1	4	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	2	2	
39	10	8	10	8	8	8	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	4	3	3	3	3	1	0	0	4	5	4	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	2		
40	7	3	7	3	8	4	1	5	2	4	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	3	7	1	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	1	
41	2	2	2	8	7	8	1	4	1	3	3	2	4	5	5	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	0	4	5	1	1	3	8	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	7	2	8	2	1	

## APPENDIX 5-D) Final Interviews - Interview Spreadsheet – II (Males)

1: F, 2: M, 3: C, 4: FM, 5: FC, 6: MC, 7: FM C

## Males

[illegible]

SOME PARTS  
EXCLUDED  
UNDER  
INSTRUCTION  
FROM THE  
UNIVERSITY

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